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Thesis

An Analysis of the Public Relations Problems Facing the Government of a New Nation - A Study of Libya

By

Patrick John Mahoney III

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Approved

by

First Reader Samuel G. Adamson
Professor of Public Relations

Second Reader
Professor of Public Relations


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There are three things in life you cannot hide;

love, smoke, and a man riding on a camel.

... Old Arab Proverb

PREFACE

In our time, history has recorded a great surge of nationalism throughout the world. Many changes have taken place in the physical boundaries of long-established countries, and still greater change is evidenced by the rise of new political entities which have considerably altered the geography of the world.

Many former colonial possessions of European powers, the harvest of an imperialistic nineteenth century, have been stirred by the nationalistic fever and have emerged, through evolution and revolution, into definite nationality.

The roll call of new nations since World War II alone has been tremendous, and within the next twenty-five years the list will be nearly doubled.

With the coming of independence to these former colonial possessions, many of which are categorized as "underdeveloped," an entire new series of problems are presented. As King Idris of Libya remarked after his infant nation gained its political freedom, "It is an achievement to gain independence, but it is a still greater one to maintain it."

It is the author's purpose in this thesis, to present and analyze some of the public relations problems facing the governments of new and future nations. Those presented are by no means the extent of their problems, however, in the author's opinion, they do represent five areas where the greater difficulty can be anticipated.

Some of these problems will seem relatively simple, but it must be remembered that many of the new nations have not enjoyed the educational or political freedoms that we have come to take for granted. Bearing this in mind, the simple problems to be discussed take on new importance.

For his presentation, the author has selected Libya as the model for discussion. In some cases, the conclusions drawn are not as specific as might be desired. This is due in part to the fact that the subject nation has yet to solve particular problems, however, the fact that the Libyan government has been made AWARE that these problems do exist is indicative that a solution is in the offing.

The author, who has spent over two years in Libya as a member of our Foreign Service, feels that the public relations problems which faced Libya on its independence day are by no means unique to that nation alone. The five areas to be discussed in this thesis will present major problems for any nation emerging to independence in the future.

Drawing mainly on his personal experiences in Libya, the author has had to reconcile himself to one major barrier. As a former Foreign Service officer, he no longer enjoys access to Federal classified documents. Even though his knowledge of certain documents would greatly enhance the writing of this thesis, he is forbidden by law to discuss or reproduce any material of a classified nature.

The author wishes to acknowledge the assistance of personal friends, both in Libya and in Washington, D. C., without whose assistance this thesis might never have been written. The author's

research was greatly aided through the efforts of William G. Murphy, Administrative Officer, American Embassy, Tripoli, Marcus Gordon, Country Director of the United States Operations Mission to Libya, and Ishaq Husseini, Chief Arab Assistant to the Public Affairs Officer of our embassy in Tripoli.

The author also wishes to acknowledge the invaluable assistance of Essayed Yousef-el-Arabi, Third Secretary of the Libyan Embassy in Washington, the library staffs of the United States Information Agency and the United Nations, the Libyan Desk officers of the Department of State, the International Cooperation Administration, and the United States Information Agency, and the Arab Information Center in New York City.

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INTRODUCTION

On December 24, 1951, a new nation was born.

Libya, a vast expanse of mountain and sand, situated on the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, emerged to definite nationality after 2800 years of foreign domination.(1)

Known to historians as the one-time center of Graeco-Roman culture in Africa, Libya achieved its independence in a manner unique in the annals of history in that it was literally thrust upon her by external forces--namely, the United Nations.

Since that eventful day in 1951, Libya's growing pains have been severe. A land devoid of natural resources, a land where there is but two flowing streams in the entire country (the larger being less than a half-mile long), the new nation is a far cry from the Libya described by Homer:

> That happly clime, where each revolving year
> The teeming ewes a triple offspring bear;
> And two fair crescents of translucent horn
> The brows of their young increase adorn;
> The shepherds swains, with sure abundance blest,
> On flat rock and rural dainties feast;
> Nor want of herbage makes the dairy fail,
> But every season fills the foaming pail.

Under the leadership of Emir (Prince) Idris el-Senussi, temporal and spiritual leader of Cyrenaica, the eastern province, Libya won its long and arduous struggle for independence. In 1949, six years after the end of the war in North Africa, the United Nations decreed that Libya would not revert to her pre-war masters, the Italians. Instead,

(1) Boston University, African Studies Library, Mahoney, MS, May, 1959, p. 1.

it was decided that Libya would become a free and independent state no later than January 1, 1952.

Through the wise and efficient counsel of Adrian Pelt of the Netherlands, the United Nations Commissioner for Libya, and a constituent assembly of twenty-one members selected from the three provinces, it was decided that the new nation would enjoy a constitutional monarchy as its form of government, and Emir Idris el-Senussi was selected by the Libyan people to become its first king.

Thus, the first god-child of the United Nations was born.

* * *

For the purpose of this thesis, public relations is defined as a planned program of policies and conduct that will build public confidence and increase public understanding of the projects introduced by their government. The public relations problems facing the infant Libyan government at its independence were legion. They arose from and were propagated by national problems of staggering proportion. Libya's national economy was perhaps the poorest in the world with a per capita income of less than $35 per year. The existing educational system was pitifully inadequate in meeting the needs of the people. The national health standards of the country were terribly deficient, and the national treasury was virtually non-existent.

The biggest problem of all seemed to be "where to begin," but through the guiding hand of the United Nations, the conscientious desire for freedom of the Libyan people, and the understanding cooperation of friendly nations, notably the United States and Great Britain,

Libya began to "pull herself up by the bootstraps."

An analysis of the many public relations problems facing the new government would be a monumental task. The author has, therefore, selected five areas in which the greater difficulty occurred and was systematically attacked by the government. The five chosen represent the areas in which the greater deficiency existed, a choice substantiated by the Libyan governmental budget. And it should be understood that before a new nation can stand on its own feet, a solution for, or at least an awareness of these problems is prerequisite.

The areas to be covered in this thesis and in their order of importance are:

1. Nationalism, from the internal point of view. The author will attempt to show that one of the earliest public relations problems facing the new government literally entailed the building of national pride. This effort was accomplished in face of strong tribal and provincial opposition, an accomplishment necessary for the initiation of policies and projects in the national interest.

2. Communications. This chapter will present the public relations problems which accompanied the communication development in the new nation. In general, the author will look at communications in the context of roads, airports, radio and telecommunications. One particular problem, Radio Tripoli, the first national radio transmitter, has been singled out for detailed observation because of its interdependence with other national public relations problems.

3. Education. The public relations problems which accompanied this national issue were not as difficult as those in other areas. The

desire for education by the Libyan people, a desire unsatisfied under their former Fascist masters, was so acute that the government had little to do other than to encourage it. Problems did arise from the external point of view, i.e., in convincing friendly powers and the United Nations that the national educational needs were so poignant as to require considerable external financial assistance to alleviate the problem.

4. National Economy. The new government found itself in dire need of external financing almost from birth. At one time, the governments of the United States and Great Britain virtually underwrote the entire national budget. The efforts of the Libyan government to make its nation self-sufficient are praiseworthy. Of the many public relations problems occurring in this area, some have yet to be solved. By virtue of the scope of this area, only the highlights will be discussed in this chapter.

5. National Health. The public relations problems existing in this area during the early days of Libyan independence represent some of the most difficult problems discussed in this thesis. They involved, in some cases, the introduction of some regional groups to the twentieth century. Regional superstition and tribal custom were the two major barriers facing the novice government. This opposition caused considerable difficulty and expense to government leaders. A solution for these problems could not be legislated, and the leaders wisely circumvented the problems through the medium of education. As such, the problem still exists today, though in a daily diminishing degree.

In retrospect, the public relations problems which faced the Libyan government at its independence, seem greater today than they did

in those early days. Proceeding virtually on blind faith, the Libyan government has leaped these seemingly insurmountable barriers with typical Arab patience.

Having no organized public relations program per se, the measures adopted by the new government in carrying out the public relations function constituted an acute awareness of social need and national welfare rather than a PR program as we know it. To us, public relations is a product of education and sophistication, but for a nation emerging to independence for the first time in history, it can mean something else.

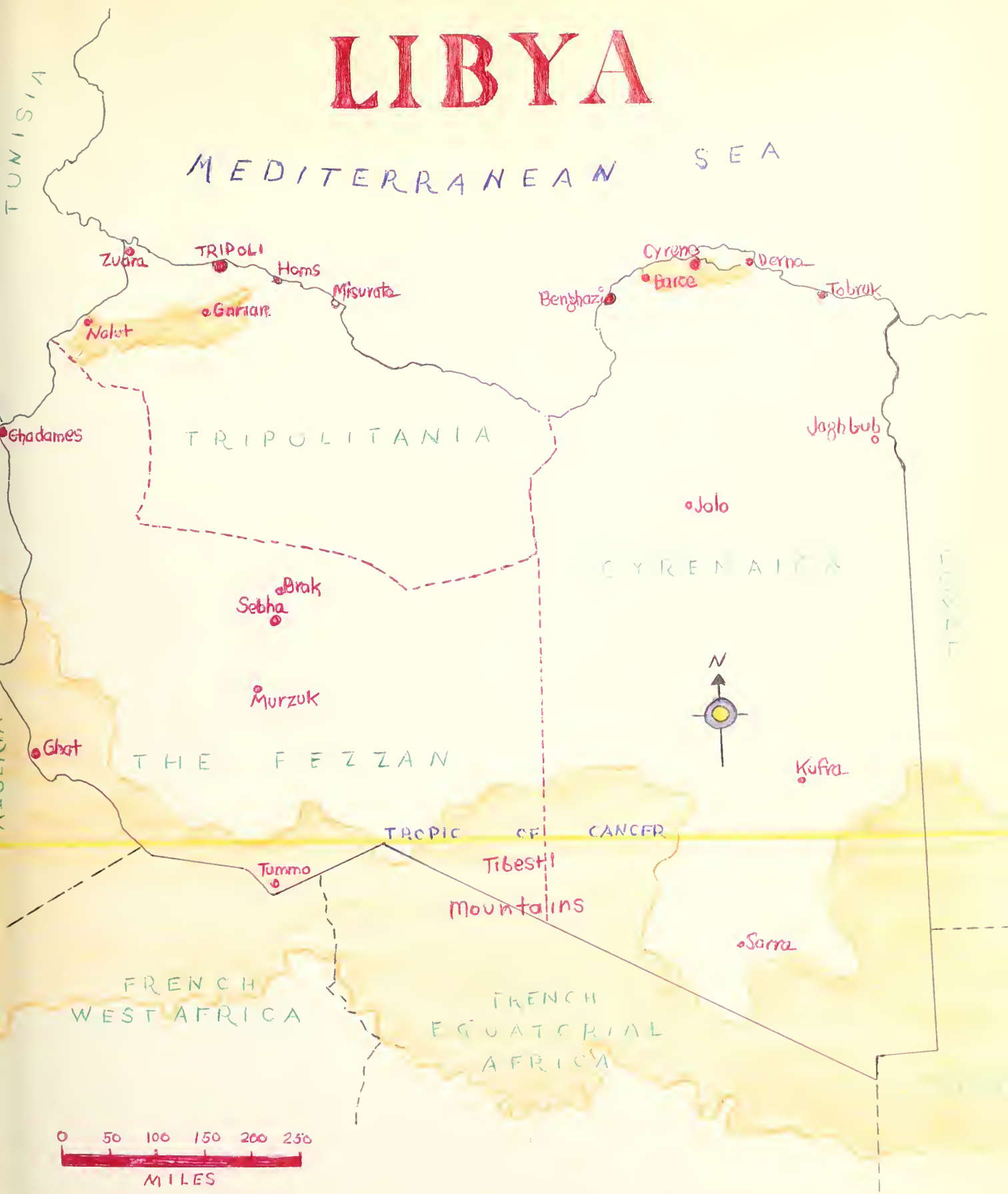
The author does not doubt for one minute that few Libyans could define public relations at the time of their independence, however, the practices and policies initiated by the new government utilized many public relations principles and procedures. It is these principles and procedures that the author will present and analyze in the forthcoming chapters.

The public relations problems facing the new government might be paraphrased as follows: How does the government of any new nation instill in its citizenry the desire for and understanding of governmental projects and policies which are in the national interest?

Bearing this question in mind, the author will show that the measures adopted by the novice government utilizing the limited media at their disposal, were and are proving successful.

It is also the rather ambitious desire of the author that Libya's example will prove valuable to governments of future nations emerging to independence in Africa and elsewhere in the world.

* * *


LIBYA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
TUNISIA
Zuara
TRIPOLI
Homs
Misurata
Garian
Nalut
Cyrene
Derna
Barce
Benghazi
Tobruk
Ghadames
TRIPOLITANIA
Jaghbub
Jalo
CYRENAICA
Brak
Sebha
Murzuk
N
Ghat
THE FEZZAN
Kufra
TROPIC OF CANCER
Tummo
Tibesti
Mountains
Sarra
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA
0 50 100 150 200 250
MILES

CHAPTER I

The first and one of the most important problems facing the government of a new nation concerns that of nationalism from the internal point of view. In the interest of clarity, the problem may be simply stated: "How does a nation instill in its citizenry the ONENESS, or patriotic pride of being, in the case presented here, Libyans."

This problem encompasses the importance of nationalism over provincial, local and tribal considerations. It operates on the premise that before a nation can pull together, it must possess a singleness of purpose, and patriotism most readily lends itself to this cause.

In Libya, the novice government was aware that such a problem existed long before actual independence came about. But before we can discuss the measures adopted to curb provincialism and tribal influence, we must first look back into history to seek the sources of the influences.

With the crumbling of the old Ottoman Empire in the last quarter of the Nineteenth Century, Libya, like other North African Turkish possessions, became ripe for conquest. Imperialistic-minded European powers saw Africa as a theater of expansion. France became interested in Morocco. England gained Egypt as a protectorate, and occupied the islands of Malta and Cyprus. As far back as 1880, Italy had designs on Tunisia, but France upset Italian calculations by occupying Tunis in 1881, and Italy was forced to look elsewhere in North Africa for its colonial expansion.

By rationalizing that Libya had once been a province of the old Roman Empire, and, having received a lesson in diplomacy at the hands

of the French, Italy took great care to preceed actual occupation of the last Turkish colony in North Africa by skillful diplomatic maneuvering.(2)

Having received the blessings of England and France for her recognition of their occupation of Egypt and Morocco, Italy then sought the aid of Russia. In 1909, Russia's consent to Italian designs in Libya was obtained in exchange for a similar consent regarding Russian ambitions in the Dardanelles. Italy's diplomatic groundwork for aggressive penetration of Libya was thus completed.

For the next two years, Italy proceeded at an accelerated pace with peaceful penetration of the provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. Great sums of Italian money flowed into the two provinces in the form of foreign investments and loans to the ruling Beys. By 1911, Italian Government schools, which had been in existence in Libya for many years, boasted an enrollment of over 1700 students.

In September, 1911, Italian Premier Giolitti, using many trumped-up charges, dispatched an ultimatum to the Turkish government, and, without waiting for a reply, ordered the invasion of Tripolitania.(3) The Italian war machine was on the march.

The Italo-Turkish War lasted for one year, and in 1912 was ended by the Treaty of Ouchy. This treaty gave Italy the provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica in Libya, as well as the Dodecanese Islands. Ratification of these acquisitions did not take place until the Treaty of Lausanne, in 1923.

(2) Roland R. DeMarco, The Italianization of African Natives, (New York, N. Y.: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1943), p. xv.

(3) Aref ben Musa, "Libya: Yesterday and Today" (unpublished research paper, School of Foreign Service, Georgetown University, 1953), p. 24.

With the coming of the Italians to Libya, we have the basis for provincial and tribal thinking at the expense of national consideration. And yet, this is not absolutely true. It is true that Arab resistance to the Italians was great in Tripolitania, but it was small in comparison to the resistance in Cyrenaica. History records that Italian consolidation of Tripolitania came about in 1923--twelve years after the first invasion of that province. In Cyrenaica, however, the entire province resisted until 1932, nearly thirty years after the first Italian soldier stepped ashore in Libya.

The statement that the Italians were the source of tribal and provincial thinking is true if placed in the proper context. To the resistance leaders of Cyrenaica, their brothers to the West in Tripolitania, "sold out" to the invaders at the price of peace. This being the case, and in some instances the charge was justified, Cyrenaicans, who by nature are a close, tribal-centered people, relegated their western brothers to an inferior position among the Libyan Arabs.

The statement is not true when you consider that there never was a nationalistic feeling among the Libyans per se. Classical definition supports this premise since there was no Libyan nation at that time, nor had there ever been in the 2800 years preceeding it.

In the interest of proper context, it is also necessary to understand that Tripolitania was more urbanly oriented than was Cyrenaica. Since the Italian domination was centered primarily on controlling the towns, and having military superiority over the ill-trained and poorly equipped Arab soldiers, it is understandable that Tripolitania capitulated to the Italian invaders. Indeed, it is amazing that their resistance lasted as long as it did.

Nevertheless, the surrender of Tripolitania to the Italians can be accepted as the basis for the inferior feeling that Cyrenaicans hold for their western brothers.

Utilizing the old axiom, "divide et impera," the Italians were quick to exploit religious differences between the followers of the Sunna, or Sunnite school of Islam, and the Abadite school followed by the Berbers.(4) The latter constituted a large minority in western Tripolitania.

The invaders furthered their plan of divide and conquer by offering the Tripolitanian leaders lucrative concessions for establishing internal autonomy in the province and the election of a parliament.(5) With the acceptance of these concessions, the provincial leaders soon discovered the subtlety of the Italian purpose. The legal documents which they signed prevented their taking action even after learning that the Italian plan was responsible for the disintegration of the forces of the Tripolitanian insurgents. Thus by guile and a superior army, the Italians consolidated the province under a new flag.

DEMOGRAPHIC RESETTLEMENT:

The principle motive for Italian interest in Libya concerned the problem of Italy's growing population. The country was literally "bursting at the seams" with a rapidly increasing citizenry. Because of this, and an acute economic condition which existed at the time, high-level authorities in the Italian government saw colonial expansion as a possible solution for their problems. It is interesting to note

(4) Ibid., p. 29.

(5) Ibid., p. 30.

that a similar motive prompted Japanese expansion into Manchuria at a later date.

After the original consolidation of Tripolitania, emigration to Libya was on a more or less haphazard basis. Poor Sicilian farmers came to Libya in the hope of a better life. Later, with the rise of the Fascist regime of Benito Mussolini, an organized plan for the emigration of Italian peasants to Libya was born. This plan, known as "demographic resettlement," was the result of careful and elaborate planning.(6) With the precision of a military invasion, the plan, instituted in 1938, saw eleven thousand Italian families transported into Italy's new "fourth shore."

Sailing from the ports on Genoa and Naples, one convoy was reviewed at sea by none other than Il Duce himself. The clock-like precision of the mass exodus was the effort of the then Governor General of Libya, General Italo Balbo.

Prior to the first convoy's sailing, great planning was needed. Each family arriving in Libya had land cleared for them. A house, barn, a cow or two, fodder, furniture, tools and a six-months supply of food was waiting for each new occupant. Entire rural villages were constructed near the resettlement areas. Each contained a church (with an accompanying priest,) stores, coffee shops, medical clinic and Fascist headquarters. The scheme not only resettled people, but brought their old customs and traditions with them.

(6)Martin Moore, Fourth Shore, (London: George Routledge & Sons, Ltd., 1940), p. 72.

Each family selected for resettlement in Libya was required to meet specific standards. Genuine peasant stock was mandatory for all applicants, since desert farming is no task for unemployed artisans or clerks, however adventurous. The scheme also forbade the use of hired labor, so the families selected had to be sufficiently numerous to work its farm unaided, with at least five members being of age and health to warrant their doing farm labor.(7)

Another incentive to the plan was the assurance that the Italian government would take care of the emigrants until such time as their desert farmland would produce a crop.

While the scheme literally reconstructed the Libyan topography, the Fascist propagandist conveniently overlooked one important item. The land for this scheme had been confiscated from the Libyan people. It was simply a matter of "to the victor belongs the spoils."

By way of restitution, and as a means to pacify the Libyan insurgents, the scheme also called for, and actually completed several resettlement areas and villages for the displaced Arab. With one exception, the building of a Mosque instead of a church, identical villages were constructed for the Tripolitanian Arab. Each had a school in which Italian was mandatory for all Arab children, but for the most part, all an Arab child could hope for was a fourth grade education. This was felt ample for people who were to be relegated to the status of "second class" citizens.

(7)Ibid., p. 20.

With the growth of urban life in Libya resulting from the demographic resettlement scheme, a new sophistication arose among the town dwellers. Imitating their Italian masters, many Tripolitanians came to "look down" on their Cyrenaican brothers as uneducated and backward country cousins. This feeling only added fuel to the fire of intense provincialism, a fire which was to burn brightly until the nation received its independence in 1951.

Paradoxically, many Libyan national heroes and martyrs, men such as the famed 72 year-old Omar Muktar, who led the resistance in Cyrenaica until his capture and subsequent hanging,(8) were hailed as patriots by Tripolitanians as well as Cyrenaicans. This was due in part to the rise of the Fascist regime in Italy which repudiated all previous political concessions granted to the Libyans.(9)

* * *

WORLD WAR II: AN AID TO LIBYAN INDEPENDENCE

With the coming of the Second World War to Libya, the cause of Libyan nationalism was again advanced. Since the capitulation of Cyrenaica to the invaders in 1932, many patriotic Libyans retreated across the border to Egypt, from whence they waged continuous guerrilla warfare against the enemy. Fighting against overwhelming odds and against a foe equipped with tanks and aircraft, the Libyan marauders became a constant thorn in the side of the Italian colonists.

(8) Major General D. C. Cumming, Handbook on Cyrenaica, (Cairo: British Military Press, 1943), p. 49.

(9) ben Musa, Op. cit., p. 30.

At the outbreak of the global war, these sturdy Libyan warriors volunteered their services to the British Eighth Army in Egypt. Used primarily as scouts and for long-range desert reconnaisance, the Libyan units soon found themselves opposing their Libyan brothers who had been conscripted into the Italian Army. Following a series of Italian defeats at the hands of the British, the Libyan divisions surrendered en masse, and through the efforts of Idris el-Senussi, who had been in forced exile in Alexandria, these men were formed into a small army and were welcomed by the British. Under the personal leadership of Idris, this small force took part in many battles for Libyan soil. Thus Libya had a national army before it had a nation.

With the liberation of Benghazi, the Cyrenaican capital, British Foreign Secretary, Anthony Eden, speaking before the House of Commons, pledged that once the war was over, Cyrenaica would never again be under the yoke of Italian domination. This pledge, made in appreciation for the valuable assistance given to the British Eighth Army by Emir Idris and his small army from 1940-43, became the first external justification for a free and sovereign Libyan state.

In the years following the war, the United Nations received several plans for the disposition of the former Italian colonial possessions. One such plan, known as the Bevan-Sforza Plan, was an Anglo-Italian agreement of trusteeship. This plan would have had Tripolitania given as a trustee to Italy, Cyrenaica to the British, and the Fezzan to the French. The latter nation had staked a claim in the Fezzan by virtue of its liberation during the war in General LeClerc's now-famous forced march from the Lake Chad region of French Equatorial Africa to join with

the British Eighth Army before Tripoli. This plan and the subsequent demonstrations against it in Libya, swayed public opinion in the world organization to the extent that it was abandoned.

In 1946, at a Paris meeting of the United Nations, Russia asked to be given Tripolitania as well as Eritrea as war reparations from an enemy it had never fought. The Western powers, realizing that this would give the Soviets a foothold in both the Mediterranean and Red Seas, quickly vetoed the suggestion.

The final plan, that of November 21, 1949, was adopted. An historical resolution of the United Nations provided that Libya, composed of three provinces of Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and the Fezzan, would be constituted as an independent and sovereign state, no later than January 1, 1952.

As Idris I, Emir of Cyrenaica, accepted the throne as the first King of Libya, he was aware that many of his people, having never enjoyed their own government, were extremely tribal and provincial-minded. Anticipating difficulties from this quarter, the new monarch wisely selected his ministers and officials from the other two provinces as well as from his native Cyrenaica. This measure brought about a certain amount of criticism from Cyrenaicans, who felt that since they alone had fought the cause of Libyan freedom, they should be the ones to govern it exclusively. But as the new leader was the spiritual as well as temporal ruler of the country, these objections were quickly put aside.

For many Tripolitanians, the new king was a Cyrenaican first and a Libyan second. This feeling was unfortunate, as the wise monarch never thought of himself in that manner, and had for years dreamed of a free and unified Libya.

In an effort to pacify all of his subjects, the King established two capitals for his new country, one in Tripoli and the other in Benghazi. The government alternates between the two capitals every four years.

One of the measures adopted by the new government which resulted in increased national pride for the infant nation, was Libya's joining of the Arab League. The nation members of this organization have many common interests--religion, language and general culture. From the prestige point of view alone, this move went far in helping the citizens of the new nation to think of themselves as Libyans and not merely as members of the Baraka tribe or as a Fezzani.

Italian-named streets were renamed in honor of Libyan heroes. Nearly every town in the country has a Sharia (street) Omar Muktar, or a Sharia Istiklal (independence.)

The establishment of a postal system and a monetary system instilled a further pride in the Libyan citizenry. The image of King Idris, their beloved leader, adorned the first stamps and monetary notes. Since that time, however, the King has requested that his name and picture be stripped from all stamps and currency, as well as from many government installations. This humble monarch holds that such prestige should be reserved for God.

In a further move which endeared him to his people, Idris revoked all titles and special privileges of the Royal family, to show his struggling people that there would be no favorites in his administration. He also publicly announced his desire that every Libyan should

be in a position to inform his King of his troubles or complaints. To facilitate this desire, Idris ordered that all letters addressed to him should need no stamps, and ordered special mail boxes be placed outside the gates of his palaces into which his people can drop their letters addressed to him.(10)

THE BATTLE IS NOT YET WON

Tribal and provincial feeling still maintains an important place in the everyday opinions and attitudes of many Libyans. It is, however, decreasing almost daily.

For example, in the fall of 1956, following the assignment of specific oil exploration sites to American, British and French oil companies, an American geologist was working in a Wadi (dry river bed) in central Cyrenaica. Looking up from his work, he found himself surrounded by a group of Cyrenaican tribesmen, many of whom were armed with rifles. Through an interpreter, the geologist invited the men to tea, as is the custom in that part of the world. After discussing pleasantries for awhile, the old Sheik then asked the American what he was doing in that particular Wadi. The geologist replied that he was doing preliminary work in the search for oil, and that his company's search was under the auspices of the Libyan King and the Petroleum Commission. To this, the old Sheik replied that these lands belonged to his tribe, that they had always belonged to his tribe, and that the government of Libya nor the King himself had any jurisdiction over them. He added that the only person who could give the needed permission to look for

(10) R. P. E. Hefter, "H. M. King Idris I," Spotlight on the United Kingdom of Libya, (Diplomatist Publications, Ltd., London, January, 1959), p. 7.

oil or anything else, was himself, the Sheik of that particular tribe. The geologist tactfully apologized, and told the Sheik how, if oil were discovered, it would greatly help his tribe and all the Libyan people. This seemed to satisfy the old desert warrior, and he gathered his tribesmen and departed.

The incident was reported to the Petroleum Commission, which in turn sent a representative to visit the Sheik. He explained that oil exploration was necessary for the country's economy, and that oil might prove to be one of the major financial hopes of the new nation.

This story is repeated here to show that the new government had considerable difficulty in explaining the national good in face of such strong provincial and tribal feeling. Granted, after nearly eight years of independence, incidents of this type are becoming increasingly rare, but they do exist.

Utilizing the limited media at their disposal, the new government continually and conscientiously tries to keep the public informed as to new measures and projects. Items stressing the national good and editorials slanted toward patriotism appear almost daily in the newspapers of Tripoli and Benghazi. Where the program has paid off for the town dwellers, the hinterlands presented a problem. There are no newspapers in the desert. The question then arose: "What of the people in the interior?"

In coping with this problem, several unique innovations were incorporated. One such innovation saw the Libyan government accepting, in fact, encouraging, the assistance of friendly foreign powers which

had cultural centers operating within the country. These nations included the United States, Great Britain, Egypt, Italy and Turkey.

From the United States Information Service, the Libyan government received help in the magazine and brochure field. Government projects, such as the waterspreading scheme of the Ministry of Agriculture, and the emphasis on agricultural education by the Ministry of Education, were helped considerably by illustrated brochures on the subjects which were written and edited in Libya. In addition, the Minister of Education requested, after the Arabic version of the brochures were distributed throughout the school systems, that English versions of the same brochures also be distributed throughout the schools for use as a training aid in the teaching of English.

These brochures helped in conveying the message of need in these particular areas, and greatly enhanced the sympathetic understanding of the efforts of Libyan-American technical assistance specialists in the field.

American and British mobile film units traveled across the desert to remote communities, showing films sponsored by the Ministry of Health, which attacked such local maladies as trachoma and malaria. Oftentimes, these film units, operated by Libyan drivers and technicians, would meet a Bedouin tribe on the move. They would follow the caravan until nightfall, and as the tribe set up its tents for the night, would show their films. For many nomads, these vehicles brought the first motion pictures ever seen in the desert. The motion picture media was never more effective than it was in desert Libya. Time and

time again, the audience would ask the operators to repeat a showing after they had sat through three or four performances of the same film at one sitting.

In Benghazi, the British Army units stationed there had a small radio station. Arabists of the British Information Center, collaborating with their American counterparts, provided Arabic-language programming through the facilities of the stand-by transmitter. These programs were often supplemented by "canned" programs from the Voice of America of the United States Information Agency, and from the British Information Service.

In Tripoli, the American Cultural Center (USIS) produced an Arabic-language magazine, "Al Maarifa" (Knowledge), which enjoyed the blessing of the Libyan government. Aimed primarily at bettering American-Libyan relations, the magazine devoted much of its space to articles on Libya, about Libya, and for Libyans. It carried information about all Libyan government projects, and reported Libya's position on world affairs in the United Nations. Since many of the governmental projects were being instigated in cooperation with the United Nations or the United States, stories carried in "Al Maarifa" went far to cement better Libyan-American relations.

Four miles east of Tripoli is the huge American Air Force Base, Wheelus Field. One of the sources of entertainment for the base personnel and their dependents is the base television station, AJG-TV. As a unit of the Armed Forces Network, the station features "canned" programs from the United States which are often three to four months old.

Other programs, such as the news and local musical productions, emanate from the station. Since the small transmitter permitted coverage of the city of Tripoli, the Embassy's Cultural Affairs Officer made a suggestion for a weekly Arabic-language program. Air Force officials concurred with the suggestion, and a new media was opened for the Libyans.

By special arrangements with the United States Information Agency in Washington, the new program got underway. Letters to American television manufacturers were written asking for the donation of television receivers. Twenty-five sets were dispatched and placed strategically throughout the city in clubrooms, boarding schools, and coffee houses. Through the cooperation of the base commander, Air Force enlisted technicians were permitted to contract with the American Embassy to service the sets.

A weekly newsreel, photographed in the United States on Sunday was processed (no sound track) on Monday. At the same time, the Voice of America Arab Service, produced Arabic scripts which accompanied the film. On Tuesday, the film cannister was put aboard a commercial air liner for London. On Wednesday, the cannister was transferred to a second commercial plane, arriving in Tripoli late Wednesday evening. On Thursday, the film was previewed by the American Information officer in the company of a local Arabic-speaking employee. This employee, who became "Mr. Television" to Libyan viewers, read and re-read the script to synchronize the speech with the film. On Friday, the Moslem Sabbath, the program was put on the air. By American standards, this process might seem very slow. However, by Middle-Eastern standards, the speed in which the program reached Tripoli borders on the phenomenal.

In addition to the ten or twelve-minute film, the USIS narrator would discuss the local news, as well as Libyan contributions in the United Nations in New York. The news was generally followed by an educational film.

On the surface, it would seem that all these measures introduced to get the people thinking in terms of being Libyans rather than Tripolitanians were rather simple. This is not true. The process is long and arduous, and is still going on. With the birth of Radio Tripoli, the first government-owned radio station in the country, a new tool to help the government with this problem was created. Bombarded hourly by the Voice of the Arabs radio in Cairo, Libya now has the means to further her nationalism through the new media. Being in a "hollow" as far as the Voice of America is concerned, (the Tangiers relay station of the VOA beams to a point in Cyrenaica on the Gulf of Sidra, thereby missing Tripolitania to the south), that province now has the means by which to better inform its people. As the station grows in size and power, the service and efficiency will grow proportionately.

The new station should go far in helping to eliminate tribal and provincial thinking as a major barrier to nationalism. The result of 2800 years of foreign domination, it would be foolish to believe that one station or one newspaper alone can solve the problem overnight. And this problem is not endemic to Libya alone. A good example of this type of thinking exists in our own country today with the attitudes many Southerners have toward the American Negro. This attitude evolved

from generations of slavery and was not changed immediately by the Emancipation Proclamation of Lincoln. Legislation, therefore, is not the answer, and fortunately the Libyan government is aware of this.

The problem of instilling nationalism in its people is one of the most important problems facing any new nation. It is a problem that is time-consuming. However, if the novice government can be made aware of its importance and institutes the necessary measures to encourage the nationalistic feeling, then that nation can proceed on its course of political and economic stability.

SUMMARY

In attacking the problem of tribal and provincial thinking at the expense of internal nationalism, the Libyan government has proceeded as follows. With the limited media at their disposal, the government attacked provincialism first through the educational system. In this manner, they broached the subjects of national pride and national interest through the literate population. Knowing that tomorrow's graduates will be Libya's future leaders, the government went to great length to procure understanding from this group.

Simultaneously, the printed word and the spoken word of radio were utilized to reach the masses. Friendly nations cooperated by providing additional facilities lacking in the new nation. These sympathetic nations also provided necessary funds to underwrite governmental projects and objectives.

By this cooperation, the Libyan government gained the use of new media--radio, television, magazines, brochures, and motion pictures, which enabled them to broaden their scope of attack. Through the use of these media, understanding for governmental objectives expanded from the urban centers to the sparsely populated desert regions.

The friendly nations also provided educational and technical training for Libyans in the use of these new media. Gradually, the desired technical skill of native labor is being achieved.

Provincial and tribal thinking cannot be eliminated over night, nor can it be solved by legislation. The Libyan government has recognized the old customs and traditions, and has initiated an educational

process before each and every change made. The old customs have not been arbitrarily discarded. By stressing Libyan inderendence, the government has been able to change many of the opinions of heretofore antiquated and tribal-thinking people into groups of citizens who are thinking in terms of the Twentieth Century.

This process is a time-consuming one, a process which has been subjected to much criticism, especially among the foreigners. However, it is working.

With each advancing year, the old wounds of provincial differences are gradually disappearing. As a member of the Arab League and the United Nations, and by military base agreements with friendly major powers, the Libyan state today has become a source of great pride to its people. By this process, the Libyan people have come to think in nationalistic rather than in tribal or provincial terms.

* * *

CHAPTER II

In Libya, as in other former colonial possessions, the existing communications system at the time of the nation's independence left much to be desired. Having suffered the onslaught of four different armies during three years of savage warfare within its borders, Libya emerged from the war to discover its communications system virtually destroyed. The post-war British Military Administration, uncertain of its tenure in Libya, did little more than to "patch up" the antiquated communications system. War damage excluded, the communications of the country, while adequate for colonial possession, were hardly sufficient for an independent and sovereign state. Entire areas were isolated from each other, and the telecommunications link between the country's two major cities was plagued with antiquated equipment and constant technical difficulties.

Of its "surface communications," i.e. roads, railways, seaports, air terminals, etc., Libya inherited a fairly good nucleus for its future communications network. There was great war damage to these facilities, but they could be rebuilt and repaired.

The "Imperiale Strada," the cross-country coastal road, was an example of Italian engineering and ingenuity. Stretching from the Tunisian border to the Egyptian frontier, 1,140 miles, this dual-lane highway connects all the major cities and ports including Tripoli, Misurata, Sirte, Benghazi, Barce, Derna and Tobruk.(11)

(11) U. S. Department of State, Background, No. 6567, Series 27, Government Printing Office, Washington: December, 1957, p. 28.

The "ribbon of asphalt," constructed at a cost of 78 million Lire, was built by Italian engineers (as a military expedient) utilizing Libyan laborers. Overcoming the hardships of the waterless desert, the great road, which took four years to complete, was finally opened for traffic in 1937.(12) The Fascist Duce, Benito Mussolini, was present for its official opening.

Aside from the coastal highway, there are only 560 miles of bituminous-surfaced roads in the country. The balance of the Libyan road network is comprised of 7000 miles of unsurfaced roads and desert tracks.(13)

Tripoli and Benghazi are the country's two major seaports. Derna and Tobruk, in Eastern Cyrenaica, have modest port facilities, but both were practically destroyed in the war. The latter, once a prosperous port, was the "home" of the Australian "Desert Rats" of World War II fame. It was 90 per cent destroyed after three years of warfare. Sunk shipping blocked the harbor, and quays and dock facilities were leveled.

With the signing of technical and economic assistance agreements, the new nation acquired the needed external financial aid to reconstruct their port facilities. To date, $1,881,600 has been allocated for the repair and expansion of port installations.(14) Minor repairs have been made at Derna and Tobruk, however, since these port permit access only to shallow-draft vessels, it is doubtful that their expansion will take place in the immediate future.

(12) Henry Serrano Villard, Libya: The New Arab Kingdom of North Africa, (Ithica, New York: Cornell University Press, 1956), p. 41.

(13) Background, op. cit.

(14) United Nations, General Assembly, Communication of the Libyan Prime Minister, (A/3961, September 17, 1958, New York, 1958), p. 24.

The nation's railway system, inherited from the pre-war Italian provincial administrations, is quite small, and for all intents and purposes, serves only as a minor supplement to highway transportation. There are only two railroads in the country. In Tripolitania, one track extends from Tripoli to Zuara in the west. A second track of the same line runs southward from Tripoli to the village of Azizzia. The second rail system is located in Cyrenaica connecting the capital city of Benghazi and Barce, a distance of eighty miles. Little has been done since independence to modernize or extend the present service.

In the field of aviation, Libya has fared better than in other areas. There are seventeen airfields in the country, the bulk of which are former wartime fighter and bomber bases. Idris International Airport, the former Castel Benito Aerodrome (Italian Air Force), is located sixteen miles south of the city of Tripoli and is the largest civil air facility in the country. Benina Airfield, serving Benghazi, has recently had its runways extended and improved navigational lighting installed. It is now classified as meeting international standards, and with the extension of its runways, has four-engined aircraft capabilities.

Tripoli is serviced by twelve major airlines, with an additional two, Scandanavian Air Service and Olympic Airways, expected to begin regularly scheduled flights in the near future.

Because of Libya's central position in North Africa, it became apparent early in the new nation's history that the country should be equipped with first-class airports and auxiliary services to meet the needs of international, trans-African, and internal airlines. This

objective has largely been fulfilled and has benefitted from the United Nations, British and American assistance, both financially and personnel-wise.

In 1954, an expert from the International Civil Aviation Organization prepared a draft Civil Aviation Law and, in connection with it, an Arabic-English Lexicon of civil aviation terminology which has been of considerable assistance to Libyan officials.(15)

To provide the meteorological services essential to the operation of air traffic through Libya, the government's Ministry of Communications requested the assistance of still another United Nations agency, the World Meteorological Organization (WMO). An expert from this organization has been assigned as the Director of the new Libyan Meteorological Service. The efforts of this new agency are responsible for the nation's ability to provide weather information to international aviation, as well as meeting the climatological needs of the government, agriculture, industry and the general public.(16)

Three of the nation's largest airfields are foreign military installations. Wheelus Field, the sprawling American Air Force Base located a few miles east of Tripoli, and its subordinate base in Benghazi, represent the American military interests in the country. El Adem, located south of Tobruk in Eastern Cyrenaica, is the principal Royal Air Force facility in Libya. In addition, the British also maintain a small detachment at Idris International Airport in Tripoli. Through treaties, these foreign air bases and their supersonic jet fighters and bombers represent Libya's first line of defense in time of war.

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(15) Ibid.

(16) Ibid.

AIR TRAFFIC STATISTICS *
Idris International
(Tripoli)

Year	Landings	Passengers In	Passengers Out	(Metric tons) Cargo In	(Metric tons) Cargo Out
1955	3,282	11,798	11,345	246	67
1956	4,087	19,824	15,782	415	78
1957	4,596	26,741	22,711	549	210
1958	5,488	31,196	32,710	623	154

AIR TRAFFIC STATISTICS *
Benina Airport
(Benghazi)

Year	Landings	Passengers In	Passengers Out	(Metric tons) Cargo In	(Metric tons) Cargo Out
1955	n.a	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
1956	n.a	4,115	3,949	n.a.	n.a.
1957	3,875	4,920	4,693	33	23
1958	3,454	5,198	4,980	37.3	33.5

* Source: Ministry of Communications, 1959.

TELECOMMUNICATIONS

Telecommunications at the time of Libyan independence operated in the most haphazard manner imaginable. Only the larger cities had a municipal telephone exchange, and these utilized the most antiquated equipment in the world. If one number in a bank of fifty shorted out, the entire fifty phones were out of order. Furthermore, there was no way to tell which instrument caused the shortage, resulting in a number by number check to locate the faulty instrument. Servicing this equipment was even more difficult. The equipment was so old that spare parts were unavailable even in Italy and France where the equipment originated. External wiring, long damaged since the war, was replaced with military wire from four armies that were scattered throughout the desert.

Radio equipment for long-distance communications was equally obsolete. Wartime equipment, German, Italian, British, French, and even some American Lend-Lease transmitters were pressed into use. As with the telephone equipment, Italian radio apparatus in the urban centers was long out-dated and spare parts could not be located.

As the interim British and French Military Administrations turned over the reins of government to the Libyans, they left behind radio and telecommunications equipment. This war-surplus equipment and the jury-rigged, pre-war Italian apparatus was the basis of the Libyan telecommunications system. At that time, the Director of the Libyan Post and Telegraph was an Englishman, R. J. G. Blackett. This far-sighted gentleman recognized the need and financial prospects of having a modern and efficient communications system. His reasoning was that

if Libya possessed an efficient communications network, her geographic position would provide a lucrative link in the North African communications chain, a link that would enable the Libyan government to earn sizable international transit tolls. Blackett expressed his thinking in a report to the Minister of Communications, and the plan was subsequently passed on to the Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission for action. This agency began contacting electronics firms in Europe and the United States notifying them that the Libyan government was accepting bids for the projects.

Two American firms, Hycon Eastern, Inc., of Cambridge, Massachusetts, and Page Communications Engineers of Washington, D. C., decided to pool their resources and apply for the Libyan contract as a joint venture to be known as Hycon-Page Libya.

In September, 1956, the Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission notified the American firm that their bid had been accepted and requested that the firm begin an immediate study to determine Libya's need and to contract and design the Libyan telecommunications system.(17)

Hycon-Page, after its survey of the situation recommended a three-point course of action:

1. To create an efficient Tripoli-Benghazi communications backbone, linking once and for all the two capital cities of the country.

2. To expand this backbone by the use of radio, to permit the transmission of news and information throughout the three provinces.

3. To provide the urban telephone exchanges with modern equipment and a large backlog of needed spare parts. This step will improve and standardize inter-city telecommunications equipment and procedures within the nation.

(17)Personal interview with Dr. D. Davidson, Hermes Electronics Company, Cambridge, Massachusetts, July 3, 1959.

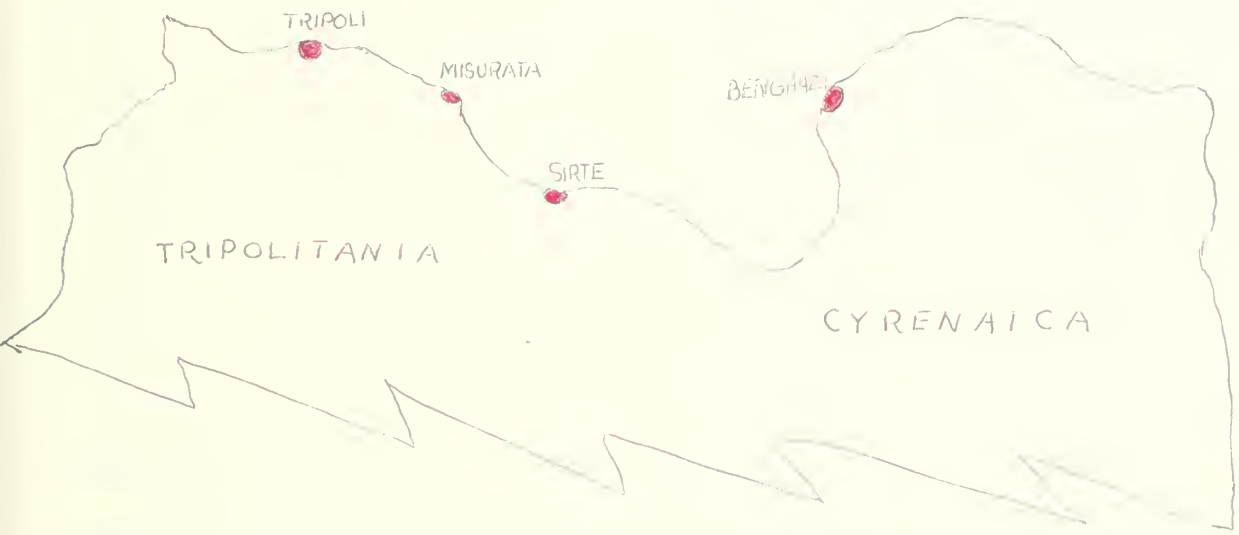
This course of action, with Mr. Blackett's suggestion serving as as a final goal, was accepted by the Libyan government, and the plans were put into immediate action.

This is where the Ministry of Communications ran afoul of its first major public relations problem. The Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission earmarked $585,200 for telecommunications projects by the end of the fiscal year 1957. Other funds from the United Nations and the Libyan Public Development and Stabilization Agency, increased the telecommunications budget considerably. When these figures were made known, the furor began.

"With people hungry, what right did the government have to approve such a large allocation for telecommunications at this time? How many Libyans have telephones anyway? The foreigners are telling our leaders what we should have--we know what we should have--full bellies, not telephones!"

Using the limited media at their disposal, the government argued that only if Libya had an efficient communications network would its world trade be exhilerated. More trade meant more money for the Libyan economy, and a better economy would mean a higher standard of living for all the Libyan people. The government further informed the public that there were other funds to take care of needed agricultural projects, and sufficient funds in the treasury to take care of any emergency relief programs. Once again the national prestige theme was used, and as suddenly as the furor arose, it subsided. In this case, the combined media was sufficient to handle the problem, and the communications project continued.

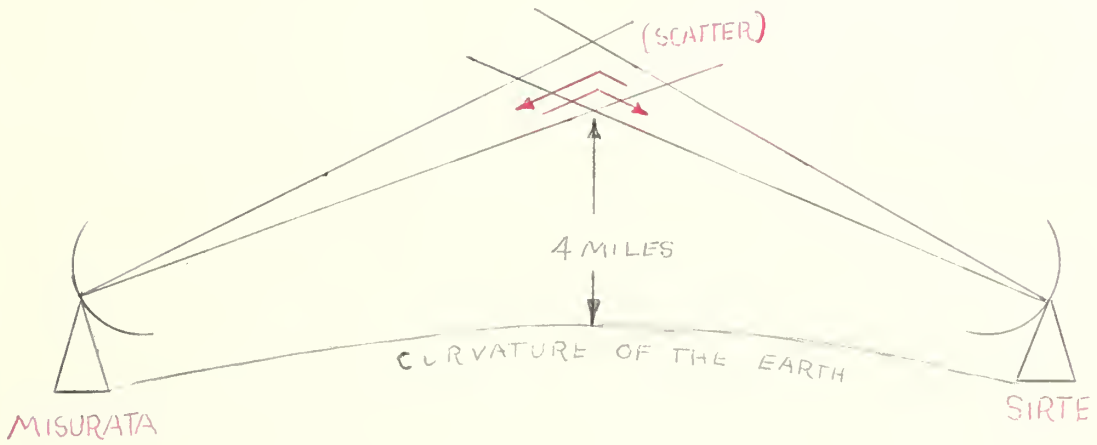
In carrying out the first step in the Hycon-Page plan, a unique measure was introduced to span Libya's wide coastal plain. The diagram below indicates the coastal area to be covered in the first step.



Originally, the plan called for underground land lines from Tripoli to Misurata, and then utilizing a radio system known as "tropospheric scatter transmission" to Sirte. At Sirte the signal would be re-transmitted by the same system across the desert and the Gulf of Sidra to Benghazi.

When the cost estimates were completed, it was found that charges for the underground land lines between Tripoli and Misurata were extremely high, and it was decided to substitute low-power, microwave relay stations instead. These stations, located within sighting of each other, picked up the signal on one side and re-transmitted it out the other.

The "tropospheric scatter Transmission" system is truly a unique innovation. The diagram below indicates its basic principle.



The transmission is picked at one "tropospheric" station and is beamed toward the next station in an upward direction. At the second station, a similar beam is directed upward and toward the first station. At a distance of approximately four miles above the earth, the beams cross, and the transmission is "scattered" down the beam of the second station. Since the signal is transferred at such a high altitude, there is little distortion due to storms and other low-level interference.

The chief drawback to this system is that it requires great power, and each station must have its own diesel-operated power plant with auxiliary "stand-by" facilities for emergencies.

Beginning in September, 1956, the Hycon-Page firm initiated work on the first stage, and by March, 1959, both the low-power micro-wave relay stations and the "tropospheric scatter transmission" stations were completed and operative.

* * *

RADIO

In 1956, following the Suez Crisis, Libya, being constantly bombarded with Egyptian propaganda over the powerful Cairo-based Voice of the Arabs Radio, recognized the need for a Libyan radio system. As it turned out, this situation only accelerated Step 2 of the Hycon-Page communications plan.

The American joint-firm was asked to survey the situation and to report on the costs of equipment, installation and the necessary personnel to man a radio station in Tripoli, with a similar station to be set up later in Benghazi. Early in December, 1956, Hycon-Page's home office in the United States was given the official word by cable to purchase the equipment for two temporary 5-kilowatt stations to be erected at Tripoli and Benghazi. The difficult stipulation in the cable required that all equipment had to be purchased in sufficient time to allow King Idris, in his Independence Day (December 24) speech to the people, to announce that the equipment had already been purchased and delivered. This stipulation had Hycon-Page officials scurrying all over the United States and Canada. The equipment had to be in stock as there was not sufficient time to order it through normal channels. The two 5-kilowatt transmitters were located at General Electric of Canada, and the 50-kilowatt transmitter, slated for permanent use as Radio Tripoli, was purchased from Westinghouse International. The balance of the equipment was purchased throughout the United States. The entire purchase, less the 50-kilowatt permanent transmitter, was airshipped to Tripoli. This air shipment included the two 200-foot transmitter towers which were broken down into sections. The entire shipment arrived in Libya

in time for the King's official announcement on December 24, 1956. The purchasing and delivery operation was accomplished in less than three weeks, and within four months, the temporary Radio Tripoli was on the air.(18)

In the early days, broadcasting was limited to morning and evening transmission. With the inclusion of afternoon transmission some months later, a full day of local broadcasting became a reality.

With the lack of qualified technical personnel in Libya, the recruitment of a staff became a prime headache. John E. Reilly, a professional broadcasting man with 20 years radio experience, was recruited by Hycon-Page and sent to Tripoli to become Station Manager. Reilly was given the difficult task of recruiting his staff and planning the programming of the Tripoli station, as well as the Benghazi station which had been completed soon after his arrival. For Arabic-speaking announcers, he recruited a few Palestinians who had several years' broadcasting experience. His technical staff included natives of Switzerland, Germany, England and Lebanon.

Since telecommunications between Tripoli and Benghazi had not been perfected at that time, the problem of simultaneous broadcasting at the Tripoli and Benghazi stations posed a major programming problem. To cope with this problem, Reilly taped his daily programming one week in advance, and air shipped the duplicate tapes to Benghazi.

With the transmission of news, which cannot be taped in advance, Reilly had a bigger problem. Among the various Libyan government agencies

(18)Personal interview with John Memishian, former project director of Hycon-Page Libya. Hermes Electronics Company, Cambridge, Massachusetts, July 3, 1959.

is an organization known as the Office of Press and Publications. Born during the Suez Crisis of 1956, this office has the function of "passing" on every news item carried in the local newspapers BEFORE it is printed. With the arrival of Libyan broadcasting, this office also became heir to censoring all programs to be presented, including the news.

Reilly, a former manager of a Boston radio station, is almost a fanatic at transmitting the news first and factual. Libyan censorship, therefore, became a major barrier to his operation. The problem was not insurmountable, however, and with typical Gaelic ingenuity, he convinced Fuad Kabazi, newly appointed Chairman of the Broadcasting Commission, that the installation of an American Wire Service teletype machine in the Office of Press and Publications would greatly enhance the transmission of world events to the Libyan people. Today, as the news comes off the teletype wires, a driver brings the "approved" news to the station. While not exactly the quickest method known, the system has proven satisfactory.

* * *

IMPROVED TELEPHONE EXCHANGES

The third step in the Hycon-Page plan is currently underway. The antiquated equipment in the urban telephone exchanges are being replaced, and new transmission lines are relieving the war surplus lines that have been in use since the Second World War. Already a part of Mr. Blackett's philosophy has been realized. International telephone communications have been completed between Tripoli and Rome, Tripoli and London, and Tripoli and the United States (via London). The first call to the United States from Tripoli was made by Mr. William Murphy, Administrative Officer of the American Embassy, in early 1957.

The internal telecommunications plan calls for a year-by-year extension of the existing land lines and the incorporation of high-frequency radio transmission circuits to isolated communities. These systems will be interchangable, and when completed, will help to unify the entire nation for the first time in its history.

The total cost of the improved telecommunications system, which includes the detailed engineering, and installation of all equipment, buildings, power, land and rights of way or easements, will be approximately $9,000,000.[19] The bulk of this figure is covered by foreign assistance grants, and it is expected that if oil is discovered in commercial quantities, the balance and operational costs will be covered by government petroleum revenues.

* * *

PUBLIC RELATIONS PROBLEMS

During the early days of Libyan independence, the communications situation in the country was deplorable. Roads, ports, airfields, telecommunication lines, railroads--all forms of communications had suffered extensive war damage. The facilities and equipment that had not been destroyed was either badly damaged or obsolete.

With the absence of an effective communications network, the nation was disunited, with entire areas isolated from one another. Large foreign assistance funds began pouring into the infant nation and communications

[19] Final Report for a Fundamental Plan of Telecommunications in the United Kingdom of Libya, Hycon-Page, Wakefield, Massachusetts: September, 1956, p. 5.

as with other sub-standard fields, received a small allocation from the government. From 1952 through 1956, the communications budget was minimal. The United Nations, which carried the brunt of the telecommunications financing during those early years, allocated only $26,000 over the four-year period.(20) The bulk of these funds went to restoring the pre-war system rather than expanding it to unite isolated areas. This is by no means a criticism, since before any expanded system can be inaugurated, there must be an existing system from whence to begin. The United Nations efforts during those early days attempted to restore the old system in preparation for the new.

In the area of surface communications, the government faced nominal, if any, public relations problems from within the country. Externally, its efforts were directed to appealing to the world body and to friendly nations for funds to restore the great havoc wrought by war. Four armies had see-sawed back and forth across the face of Libya for three long years, and the resultant destruction had been thorough. Even before Libya was admitted to membership in the United Nations, her cause had been pleaded by friendly nations on the floor of the General Assembly, and by invitation, a Libyan delegation arrived in New York to present its needs to the world body.

The success of these earlier efforts are measured by the amount of economic and technical assistance funds Libya has received.

(20)United Nations, A/3961, Op.cit.

The first major public relations problem the Libyan government had to face in the communications field came with the decision to modernize the national telecommunications system. Angry letters of protest poured into the nation's newspapers. The forum of the "Coffee House" became a beehive of stormy protests. The people simply did not understand the need for such a large allocation of funds for what they considered a luxury. By utilizing the limited media at their disposal, the government presented its case to the people. When the masses were told of how the telecommunications system precluded an increase in their living standards, the angry roar subsided to a murmur. In presenting their case to the people, the government stressed the "prestige" angle, an item close to every Arab heart. The results of their efforts found active support where before there had been only derision.

The next major public relations problem, and one that has yet to be solved, concerns the operation of the national radio--Radio Tripoli.

After the initial pride of having a national radio subsided, complaints began to mount against the type of programming, the Arabic used by the announcers, etc. Some of the more irresponsible newspapermen joined the trend and used their columns to attack the new station with almost monotonous regularity. Even though the lack of technical skill within the country prevented placing Libyans in key broadcasting positions, the attacks on "foreigners working for Radio Tripoli" continued. Prior to these attacks, Station Manager Reilly began a training program for Libyans, anticipating the day when they will assume the responsibility for the operation of the complex equipment. Though the training program for the

Libyans was common knowledge throughout the city of Tripoli, it did not prevent the malicious editorial attacks in the city's newspapers. American observers on the scene report that the pattern of the derogatory articles was familiar, and written in terms of vehemence that betrayed their foreign instigation.(21)

The government has taken steps to better orient the people concerning their radio station, however, some of the government articles in defense of the station's personnel have been misinterpreted as an attempt to "cover up". Their efforts to date have been met with severe criticism. Neighboring countries have picked up the issue and have aided and abetted the cause of the antagonists. Perhaps if the government was less concerned with what is being said and more concerned with who is saying it, the resulting action might go far in correcting the situation.

* * *

SUMMARY

From a humble beginning, the Libyan Communications network has progressed at a remarkable pace. The early public relations problems facing the new government entailed almost exclusively the preparation of documents for use in soliciting immediate financial aid to restore the modest pre-war communications system.

This accomplished, the government ran afoul of its first major public relations problem when the decision was made by government officials to

(21)U. S. Department of State, Quarterly Economic Summary, Unclassified Foreign Service Despatch No. 188, Tripoli: January 12, 1959, p. 23.

give the nation a long-needed and modern telecommunications network. To the masses, this decision was like demanding caviar for a people that did not even have bread in their homes. Criticism to the government decision was loud and hostile. To a nation that was 90 per cent illiterate, the need for an extensive telecommunications system was not understood, and was considered a luxury that they could not afford. The government met the problem head-on, and by utilizing the limited media at their disposal (six Arabic, two English and two Italian newspapers, and the "stand-by" transmitters of the British Military Radios in Tripoli and Benghazi) a thorough picture of the proposed communications system was presented. Particular emphasis was given to the "prestige" factor, and to the requirement of such a system if the national living standards were to be improved. The success of the public relations efforts in dealing with this problem can be measured by the suddenness with which the criticism disappeared.

The current public relations problem facing the Libyan government in the field of communications, centers on the foreign personnel manning the national radio stations. Daily criticism in the local press cries out for Libyan supervision and operation of their own stations, and a neighboring nation's radio system has taken up the hue and cry against "imperialistic interference."

Government public relations efforts to date have only served to keep the issue alive. The simple fact that there are no native personnel with sufficient technical ability to man such a complex operation, cannot be stated for fear of injuring national pride. The Libyans are aware of their educational and technical shortcomings, but they do not want to

hear it, especially from their government. Thus, the issue must be handled with great care. Interested observers have pointed out that the pattern and language of the vicious editorial attacks have a similarity to comparable copy used to excite the populations of other Middle Eastern countries. It is the author's opinion that these attacks are Egyptian-inspired and Russian financed. Should the problem be approached from the point of view of suppressing foreign insults to Libyan dignity, perhaps the issue would be short-lived.

As previously stated, the problem is a current one, and the public relations efforts to date have met with little success. Some government officials have voiced their belief in rather extreme terms, such as giving the "foreign" personnel of the radio station a vacation, and then closing down the station for want of a capable staff. In this manner, a population denied access to a national radio might think twice before supporting such anti-national criticism.

The author does not agree that this suggestion would solve the problem. If anything, it would only perpetuate the antagonism, as foreign propagandists would tell the Libyan people that they were being punished by their government.

There must be a better solution. Certainly now is the time in Libyan history that the government could benefit from an organized public relations department. An outside firm could not be employed to handle this situation, since it would be adding more "foreigners" to the government payroll and provide further fuel for the antagonist's fire.

Nor can the government simply ban such editorial attacks and the vicious "letters to the editor." What little freedom of the press that

exists in Libya must be preserved. Therefore, the author would suggest that as a possible course of action, the Libyan government should investigate where these "anti-foreign" criticisms are coming from. If the author's feeling about the origins of these attacks is correct, then the government could "expose" the source in the press and use the very "anti-foreigner" tactics against those who would disrupt Libyan governmental projects.

CHAPTER III

One of the major requirements for any nation today is a thorough and efficient mass educational system. As many of the former colonial possessions emerge to inderendence, the educational system of that nation is often deficient. Such was the case in Libya.

The underdeveloped nation which gains its political freedom is faced with a problem of great proportion in this area. One of the first steps any new government must take is to make available and encourage the mass education of its citizenry. The problem is not important merely from the population point of view, for regardless of size, a new nation can only survive if its people are literate and educated. Thus, the justification for a national education system.

In certain new nations such as Libya, the need for a mass education system was acute prior to independence, and required the immediate attention of the new government in instituting the system on a crash basis. Under Italian domination since 1911, the Libyan Arab had little opportunity for an education. The Arab child who was fortunate enough to get into school was made to learn the language of his masters and could only look forward to a fourth grade education. This was felt ample for the non-Italian child of the "new Libya."

Prior to Libya's independence, the United Nations Commission to that country reported:

> "The core of any economic and social development plan must inevitably be an educational and training program. The principal untapped resource of Libya is its human skill, for a population which is 90 per cent illiterate and almost completely lacking

> in trained technicians cannot fully exploit its existing resources or successfully manage its affairs in a highly competitive world unless its inherent talents are developed by education and training."(22)

During the post-war era and before its actual independence, the Libyan pro-tem government, under the guidance of the world organization, attacked the national problem of education as it did with agriculture, health and natural resources. In the pursual of alleviating these national problems, special problems of a public relations nature presented themselves. It is the special problems which occurred in the drive for a national education system that will be investigated in this chapter, but before doing so, it is necessary to understand the national problem first.

The national problem in education was a major one. The first item on the agenda called for the establishment of a Libyan school system. The system advocated, and still maintained today, created a primary school of six years followed by a secondary school of five years.

Since Arabic was to be the official language of the system, the next major barrier facing the government was the problem of securing capable teachers for the expanded program. Through the assistance of the world organization and friendly Arab nations, a large number of foreign, Arabic-speaking teachers were imported for employment in the new Libyan school system. Among these were over 700 Egyptians sent to Libya by the Egyptian government.[23] These teachers enjoyed financial remuneration unique in the teaching field. In addition to the salary

(22) United Nations, Council for Libya, Supplementary Report, Second Annual Report of the United Nations Commissioner in Libya, (No. 17 A (A/1949/Add. 1) (Paris, 1952), p. 16.

(23) Washington Post and Times-Herald, January 26, 1958, p. 38.

paid them by the Libyan government, a subsidy matching their salary was paid by the Egyptian government. Other Arab teachers from Palestine, Syria and Lebanon did not enjoy this privilege, a situation which led to considerable friction among the system's teaching staff.

A survey conducted by the United Nations Commission to the new nation revealed that at its independence, Libya could boast of only fourteen citizens who had had one year or more of college training.(24) This figure is indicative of the deplorable educational standards for native Libyans under the Italian regime.

The same report noted that of those students receiving an education of any kind under the Italians, 60 per cent were city dwellers. Since the rural and nomadic population of the country represents a large minority, this fact only substantiates the sub-standard emphasis that the Fascist regime placed upon native education.

If the educational system was deplorable for Libyan children in general, the education of female children was even more so. The Commission study revealed that prior to independence, illiteracy of women in the country was estimated at an unbelievable 99 per cent. This fact cannot be blamed entirely on the Italians, as it was the result of antiquated tribal beliefs concerning the inferior status of women. In this respect, Libya is slowly evolving toward the emancipation of women. Conditions are not as yet equal to those of Morocco, Egypt or Lebanon, however, the situation is improving. This problem is of a social nature and can only be solved satisfactorily from within. The Libyan women for the most

(24) New York Times, April 2, 1957, p. 41.

part are still veiled, but for one eye, when seen in public. No man, save her immediate family, may see her unveiled. The situation is more prevelent in tribal-centered Cyrenaica than in Tripolitania, but even there, progress is being made. The appearance of other women, especially from fellow-Arab nations, attired in western clothes and seen in public, is going far in revoking the old ways. Women occupying government positions as teachers and administrators are the pioneers in this social reform movement. One organized body, the Women's Association, is the leader of the movement for the emancipation and eventual suffrage of Libyan womankind.

* * *

THE DRIVE FOR EDUCATION

Education in Libya today, only eight years since independence, has evolved from the simple art of bringing up children to virtually a passion, even a fever. Whether you are visiting a Libyan city or a small village, groups of boys and girls, book satchels in hand, are to be seen on their way to or from school.

It is not the compulsion of the state's authority that drives them to the classrooms. It is a deep craving for knowledge, a craving which was, and is, encouraged by an intelligent government.

This encouragement, appearing in the form of government-sponsored editorials in the local newspapers and through brochures, was quickly absorbed by a people new to independence, a people who felt a strong personal inadequacy. Arabic-language broadcasts eminating from British Military radio stations in Tripoli and Benghazi, found avid listeners eager to heed the government's advice.

Since independence, this craving for knowledge applies to the adult population, as well as to the children, and has spread to almost epidemic proportion. A UNESCO report describes the situation as "one of the fastest growing educational systems in the world."(25) The desire for learning encompasses all age groups. The UNESCO report noted that when one kindergarten class opened in Tripoli for a maximum of 30 pupils, it was overwhelmed with over 300 requests from parents anxious to register their children.(26)

A brief look at the history of education in Libya in recent times shows that it is divided into three periods. The first, under the Italian occupation, is that period where Libyans were not only discouraged, but often prevented from taking part in the general education programs. The aim of the Fascist authorities was to make the Libyans into disciplined and obedient colonial subjects who would work under the orders of their masters, but would not be able to compete for any of the recognized professional or leading positions.

The second period is that of the post-war British administration. During this period a great deal was done to encourage the masses to partake of the existing educational system, especially at the elementary level. But the failure to provide and train enough Libyan teachers and the disregarding of efforts to increase the number of university students, were the major weaknesses of education at that time. The British did

(25) New York Times, January 8, 1959, p. 43.

(26) Ibid.

yield to the people's demand for the expansion of the educational program, but not fast enough, nor on the vast scale required by the circumstances.

The third and final period is that era since independence, when the new Ministry of Education assumed the responsibility of education for the Libyan people. This agency assumed full control over all educational activities, the planning of needed schools, and supervised their actual construction. The Ministry operates on the federal level, and works through the Nazirates of Education of the three provinces. Recognizing the desperate need for native teachers, this agency financed and encouraged the opening numerous teacher-training colleges and technical schools, and supervised the opening of the first institution of higher education in the country--the University of Libya.

The following tables indicate the progress made since 1943 in the field of elementary, preparatory and secondary education.(27)

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: TEACHERS AND PUPILS
(1943-44 to 1957-58)

Academic Year	No. of Schools	Male	Female	Total	Teachers
43-44	69	6,170	404	6,574	201
44-45	100	8,990	620	9,610	331
45-46	116	11,805	759	12,654	387
46-47	120	12,438	1,397	14,835	459
47-48	140	15,261	2,376	17,637	467
48-49	166	21,662	3,132	24,794	763
49-50	181	23,481	3,757	27,238	899
50-51	193	28,266	3,823	32,089	1,024
51-52	201	31,967	4,920	36,887	1,156
52-53	225	36,520	5,599	42,119	1,180
53-54	263	40,647	7,193	47,840	1,602
54-55	312	47,150	9,108	56,258	1,784
55-56	372	54,369	11,054	65,423	2,102
56-57	415	61,020	13,398	74,418	2,549
57-58	433	73,158	16,400	89,558	2,733

(27)Hefter, Op. Cit., p. 16.

PREPARATORY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THEIR TEACHERS: (1947-48 to 1957-58)

Academic Year	No. of Schools Preparatory	Secondary	Students	Teachers
47-48		4	234	18
48-49		3	293	29
49-50		3	385	36
50-51		4	628	49
51-52		4	795	59
52-53		5	978	83
53-54		7	1,571	111
54-55		7	2,395	189
55-56		8	2,806	199
56-57		9	4,650	304
57-58	37	8	5,271	358

The progress made with regard to teacher and training centers is recorded by the following statistics for the school year 1957-58:

INSTITUTIONS OF TEACHER TRAINING

School	Number	Students	Teachers
Teachers School	2	1,283	96
Women Teachers School	2	280	35
Agriculture	2	205	18
Commerce and Industry	4	425	51
Handicraft Institute	1	70	14
Mechanical Engineering	1	22	4

Another indication of the progress achieved can be gathered from the annual increase of the national education budget. Financial figures in the graph below are indicated in Libyan Pounds (LL). A Libyan Pound is roughly equivalent to $2.80 on the world market.

EDUCATION BUDGET

Financial Year	Budget
52-53	642,837 (LL)
53-54	893,132
54-55	1,193,609
55-56	1,075,664
56-57	1,641,167

Since the economy of the country is based largely on agrarian and pastoral activities, the need for agricultural education was immediately recognized.

In February, 1952, less than 50 days after their independence, the Libyan government sought the aid of the United States Operations Mission to Libya, in the setting up of two agricultural education institutions. These schools were located at Sidi Mesri, outside the city of Tripoli, and at El Awelia, located in the Barce Plain of Cyrenaica.

On that date, an American, Mr. Ray Russell, a University of Missouri graduate and a specialist in agricultural education, arrived in Libya under the auspices of the American Point Four program to assume charge of the school at Sidi Mesri.

The situation which greeted Mr. Russell at the new school site was far from optimistic. Horses had been stabled in what was to be his living quarters, solitary confinement cells remained in one of his future classrooms, and the debris of three different armies--Italian, German and British, had collected in the one usable building.

The need for such a school was acute, and the Libyan government spared nothing in renovating the buildings. Some nine months and 12,000 Libyan Pounds later, the school was ready to receive its first students.(28)

The original thirty students enrolled at Sidi Mesri were chosen from all sections of Tripolitania on the basis of competitive examinations.

The curriculum was set up on a split-day basis. In the morning, half of the students attended class while the other half worked in the field learning the practical application of agricultural procedures. In the afternoon, the process was reversed.

The school, being a specialized secondary institution, offered courses in mathematics, languages, science, agriculture, and the social sciences. Though Arabic was established as the official language of instruction, English was made mandatory for all students, with Italian being taught on an elective basis.

The agricultural courses included irrigation, soils and fertilizers, blacksmithing, farm bookkeeping, dairy farming, fruit tree spraying and pruning, and truck gardening.

Administrative officers of the school were appointed by the Ministry of Education, while the faculty was composed of American and Middle Eastern teachers.

Adequate medical and hygiene facilities were made available at the school and supervised athletics was required of all students. Religious

(28) [Patrick J. Mahoney, III], Student Farmer, (Beirut, Lebanon: Near East Regional Service Center, (USIA), 1956), p. 2.

training was not overlooked, as an employee, Essayed Mohammed Bederi read daily from the Koran for the all-Moslem student body.

At Sidi Mesri, a unique innovation was incorporated to supply spending money for the students. Each student was allocated a section of irrigated land on the school grounds, and was loaned vegetable seeds and fertilizer. Because of extremely favorable weather conditions, four to five truck garden crops can be harvested yearly. The vegetables, carrots, radishes, peas, lettuce, and tomatoes were planted and cared for by the students in their free time. When a crop is harvested, the vegetables are tallied in a school account book and transported to the commisary of the American Air Base, Wheelus Field, to be sold. When the profits are returned to the school, a secretary deducts the cost of the seed and fertilizer (a very nominal charge) and the balance is credited to the student in his school account. Since Sidi Mesri is a boarding school, the student has little use for money on the premises. However, when the occasional trip to town is permitted, or during vacation, the student has his own pocket money. According to school officials, this system gives the student a feeling of independence and has helped in teaching them the value of money.

In Cyrenaica, the El Awelia school operates on a different principle. Each student is given a small monthly subsidy by the provincial government, but other than this, the two schools are more or less identical. Each is under the direct supervision of an American Point Four specialist who maintains his residence at the school.

An outstanding example of the success of these schools is Sidi Mesri's Mohammed Abdulsalam Qaja. When this 17-year old boy from the

desert community of Beni Ulid first heard of the examinations to be given for entrance to this school, he walked fifteen miles across the desert to take the competitive examination. On the basis of his examination score and his personal character, Mohammed was selected by Mr. Russell to enter the school. On his arrival at the school, Mohammed spoke only Arabic, and that with a heavy regional accent. After completion of the four-year course, this young man spoke fluent English as well as perfect Arabic. At the conclusion of his course of study, he was given an entrance examination for an American university. The name of the institution was blocked off from him, and as far as he was concerned, it was just another examination required for graduation. He surprised everyone except his instructors by scoring a very respectable 96.8 per cent on the examination, and was subsequently sent to the State of Utah on an American Educational grant to further his study of agriculture. Qaja's success alone more than justifies the faith that the Libyan government had in establishing this type of institution.(29)

* * *

EDUCATIONAL PUBLIC RELATIONS PROBLEMS

The government's position toward the public relations problems in the area of education was a difficult one. At first, the greater difficulty arose with their program of influencing the people to get an education before the necessary educational facilities were even available.

An example of how difficult the situation was in the early days of independence is reflected in the advertisements which appeared in the

(29)See Appendix "A".

government-owned Tripoli newspaper, Tarablus al-Gharb. These advertisements solicited secondary school graduates for positions in the Libyan Diplomatic Service. Since then, however, requirements are far more rigorous. But in the beginning, the lack of formally educated personnel forced the new Foreign Office to recruit secondary school graduates.

To the sophisticated reader, the early public relations offerings in the medium of the press might appear as "patting their own back." But bearing in mind the educational deficiency of the nation in its infant years, this "self-appreciation" was not only desirable, but quite necessary from the point of view of the Libyan government.

Consider the difficulty of the Libyan governmental agencies at that time. They were utilizing the available media in stressing the need for mass education. The educational facilities existing at that time were inadequate to handle the increased enrollment resulting from the public relations effort. With the people crying for an education, and the situation was just that, the building campaign of the Ministry of Education could not keep pace with the demand.

The initial problem of getting the people to want an education was a relatively simple one. Government insistance on education only enflamed the latent desire of the long-dominated populace. The big problem came in the expanding of educational facilities. And as a result, each new school completed brought an unusual amount of publicity which was unfortunately interpreted as "back patting" by some, notably among foreigners.

As the program of expanding existing school facilities began to make progress, the Libyan government then concerned itself with the

problem of procuring foreign teachers to staff the new schools. Teachers were recruited from sister Arab nations on an annual contract basis. The plan, devised by the Ministry of Education, called for a continuing number of foreign teachers annually until such time as native teacher training programs could produce their own instructors.

As previously stated, the bulk of these teachers came from neighboring Egypt. This gave the Egyptians a great propaganda advantage (during the rise of the Nasser regime), especially during the Anglo-French invasion of Egypt in the Suez crisis in 1956.

If a student in a Libyan school was given an outside reading assignment, the Egyptian teacher would give him a note which he took to the Egyptian Cultural Center in Tripoli or Benghazi. At this modern, well-stocked library, the student presented the note to the librarian and received the book free of charge as an outright gift. The books, which were shipped to the Cultural Center in the duty-free Diplomatic pouch, were second-hand, having been used by an Egyptian student the previous year. On the fly-leaf of each book was a written note from an Egyptian schoolboy, such as: "To my Libyan brother with best wishes," and the boy's name.

This practice, along with religious, ethnic and language similarities, gave the Egyptians a great advantage in the propaganda field.

The realization of this practice prompted the Libyan government to procure increased numbers of foreign teachers from other Arab lands, notably among Palestinians and Lebanese. The pro-Western Libyan government felt the need to counter that increasing anti-Western influence on its future leaders.

In reshaping the nation's educational program, a number of problems were presented. Aside from the building shortage and the securing of capable teachers, such problems as revision of textbooks, curriculum, and the establishment of new standards became pressing.

Until recent years, most of the texts used in Libyan schools were produced and printed in Egypt. With the advancement of the printing industry within the country, more and more texts are being prepared at home. This is the result of the efforts of a five-man American technical team which was assigned in Libya to assist the government in the preparation of improved textbooks and other teaching materials. An allotment of LL 91,000 ($254,800) was made by the United States Technical Assistance Program for textbook production in Libya.(30) There are many advantages to this project, one being that a student studying history is now learning the subject through the eyes of Libyans.

With the passing of a law making birth registration compulsory, it is now easier for authorities to estimate future needs. Kindergartens take children from five to seven years, and the following six years are spent in primary schools which are springing up at a fantastic pace all over the country. A further five years' schooling is now available free of charge for those fortunate enough to live near a school. Even in the remote Fezzan, the southern desert province, there are more than 5,000 children attending school.(31)

(30)Libya, Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission, Report to the Prime Minister, July 1, 1957, p. 16.

(31)Hefter, Op. cit., p. 17.

SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

In face of the ancient practice of relegating women to a status of subservience, the advancement of female education in Libya since its independence has been commendable. One of the schools of Cyrenaica which has exemplified the trend toward the emancipation of women is that operated by a young Libyan woman, Miss Amal Shennib. Inspired by the pioneer leader of the emancipation movement, Mrs. Hamida El Anaeizi, a teacher for 30 years, Miss Shennib has done wonders with her school.

Having never attended a teacher's training school, Miss Shennib is a product of eight years in the Libyan Secondary School system. Now only 24-years old, she is headmistress of a school of 400 children between the ages of five and eleven years who are attending co-educational classes under a faculty of twelve instructors. Where co-education is not typical in Libya, it has become less rare in the few short years since independence. The movement has the blessing of the Women's Association, an organization of literate and cultured women. This organization, while not yet successful in winning the vote for female citizens, has succeeded in opening an ever-widening horizon of new interests for women until now behind the veil.

The government has also taken into consideration the problem of educating children of nomadic tribes. A United Nations survey in Iraq, which had a similar problem, was used by the Libyan government in the formulating of decisions toward this large minority. In addition to fulfilling a social need, the construction of boarding schools for these children serves another purpose. The government has found that while the nomadic children are attending school, their parents have the tendency to stay

near them. For economic reasons, the gradual reduction of nomadic wandering is a great advantage. It is true, however, that at present most of the children attending these schools return to the old family life with the tribes after their education. It is the hope of the government that these children will see the opportunities available to them, and after finishing school they will move to the towns to live and work.(32)

* * *

A CLOSE LOOK AT THE OVERALL EDUCATION PICTURE

To point out the magnitude of the educational problem in Libya, the presentation of some official statistics is in order. Nearly eight years after the nation's independence, Libya can only boast of 10 per cent literacy among its people. For a nation roughly equivalent to one-quarter the size of the United States, and with a population of 1,091,830, the literacy figure might seem deplorable. This figure should not be attributed to self-complacency, but rather as a result of centuries of foreign domination. As alarming as the literacy figure might be, there are great areas of the world where the figure may run considerably higher, and from these areas will emerge new nations, some in the immediate future.

The literacy figure in Libya is ample justification for the immense interest in education, and necessitates the rapid pace which the government is moving in the mass education program for its citizens.

(32)Ibid., p. 18.

The estimated 1958-59 attendance in primary schools is 93,000, a sizable increase over the previous year.(33) Enrollmen is heavily weighted toward the first few years.

The Secondary School attendance figure for the same year is estimated at 6,253. Enrollment in the secondary schools has quadrupled between 1953 and 1957. This figure includes vocational and teacher-training students.

The teacher-training enrollment is estimated at 1300 at the two training colleges in Cyrenaica and Tripolitania. Over 200 primary school teachers were graduated from these institutions in 1957, with an additional 300 being graduated in 1958. Unfortunately, at the present time, there is no facility available for the training of secondary-school teachers.

In the field of higher education, 286 students are enrolled at the University of Libya. Established in 1955 in Benghazi, this institution held its first graduation exercise in June of this year. A former palace of King Idris, the University was donated by the Libyan monarch as an expression of concern for the educational problem existing in his country. Manned by a faculty of thirty (including an American Chancellor), this institution is composed of three schools: The School of Science, located in Tripoli with fifty-three students; The School of Commerce, with eighty, and the School of Arts with an enrollment of 153 students. The latter two schools are located in Benghazi.

(33)United States Information Agency, "Report on Libya", Washington, D. C., (RO/NE-30-59), February 6, 1959, (Mimeographed), p. 2.

Another indication of the inroads women are making in Libya, is shown by the fact that Libyan women were permitted to matriculate at the University for the first time in 1957.(34)

In addition to the growing facilities for education in the country, Libyan students are beginning to go abroad for higher and specialized education. This is accomplished through scholarships made available by friendly nations, as well as by the Libyan government itself. An estimated 238 Libyan students are presently studying in Egypt, 42 in the United States, a small group in England, and 36 others in other Western European countries. The American University of Beirut in Lebanon has 20 Libyan students, and at least one Libyan is reported to be studying in Soviet Russia.(35)

It is interesting to note that the Libyan government spent considerable time and effort in arranging external scholarships for its citizens. While not labeled a public relations function, the efforts of the government in this field undoubtedly utilized many public relations practices. Educational grants became items on the diplomatic agenda with friendly nations. They were also entered in the financial assistance budget presented to the United Nations, the United States, and Great Britain. With the dispensing of oil exploration sites to foreign companies, the educational grant was included in the terms of barter. Certain companies agreed to train Libyans in skilled technical positions. This training included instruction in the United States, as well as on-the-job training in Libya.

(34) Ibid.

(35) Ibid.

The establishment of foreign cultural missions in Libya saw an increase in educational scholarships for Libyans. Spain, for example, provided a limited number of scholarships to Libyans to study Islamic Art in that country.

From the United States, the Libyan public relations effort resulted in the allocation of LL 90,000 Pounds ($252,000) for the training of Libyan students and technicians outside of the country.(36)

* * *

SUMMARY

From the first day of its independence, Libya has had an acute national education problem. In attacking this problem, the government became concerned with accompanying public relations problems. The public relations efforts in this area were directed toward the following problems:

1. Encouraging the Libyan people's desire for education.
2. Publicizing the expanded construction of schools by the Ministry of Education.
3. Procuring foreign Arabic-speaking teachers.
4. Publicizing the establishment of local teacher-training institutions.
5. Procuring external financing for school construction, teacher training institutions, and foreign scholarships and training grants.
6. Procuring external financing and publicity for specialized educational institutions, such as vocational agricultural schools, female education, and boarding schools for the children of nomadic tribes.

(36) Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission, Op. cit., p. 15.

These six major problems constitute the bulk of the public relations efforts during the first eight years of independence. They have not been completely successful, nor will they be for years to come. In the quest for a final solution for these problems, the government has acknowledged its public relations responsibility to the Libyan people. In the pursuit of its public relations objectives, the government's efforts have become almost routine, and responsible officials know that a final solution can only be brought about when the great national problem of educational deficiency has been conquered.

CHAPTER IV

The pulse of any country may be measured by its economy. In many nations emerging to independence, this pulse is understandably weak, and when glaring deficiencies exist in the areas of education, communications and national health, the prospect for a stabilized economy in the immediate future is vastly remote.

Such a situation existed in 1951 when Libya faced the world as a free and sovereign state. The financial backing of the nation at that time rested in the hands of the world organization and friendly foreign powers which had agreed to underwrite the infancy of the new country.

Internally, the economy of the nation was in a deplorable state. The lack of water power precluded industrial growth, and sparse rainfall, Libya's only source of life-giving water, permitted only the barest agricultural and pastoral enterprises. The urban centers of the two major provinces, especially in Cyrenaica, were still wallowing in the ruins of the Second World War. Since educational opportunities were denied or restricted to native Libyans in the preceeding thirty years, illiteracy was rampant in the country. The levels of technical and professional skills were equally low for the same reasons.

Nor did the immediate future hold optimistic visions for the infant government. Devoid of natural resources, Libya, the one-time center of Graeco-Roman civilization in North Africa, faced the bleak future with little more than faith, typical Arab patience, and a generous measure of intestinal fortitude.

During the two years prior to its independence, Libya prepared for the day when it would join the world family of nations. Guided step by step by the United Nations Commission for Libya, an accelerated learning process was required of all future government leaders. Since the country had never known independence, no one in the country knew anything about the mechanics of government. All future leaders had to learn, and learn the hard way. The independence date having been set by the world organization (on or before January 1, 1952), the future leaders were required to gain as much knowledge as possible in administration, parliamentary procedure, legislation and diplomacy, and all the while, the time factor hung over their heads like the Sword of Damocles.

The United Nations officials did their jobs well, and on December 24, 1951, one week before the United Nations deadline, King Idris declared the independence of his new nation.

While the country was still under the aegis of the world organization, many Libyans took a long look at their future nation's economy. Since the exploitation of possible mineral resources was only speculative at that time, the nation based its hopes on the one activity in which the majority of Libyans participated--agriculture. The choice was a logical one, and the government directed most of its early efforts in this field. Seven years after independence, the Libyan Prime Minister, Abdul Majid Coobar, substantiated this choice in a communication delivered on the floor of the General Assembly of the United Nations:

> "The majority of the Libyan people, probably more than eighty per cent, are dependent, directly or indirectly, upon agriculture

> for their livelihood, and since the country is yet without proven mineral resources of commercial value, it is of the utmost importance that its agricultural resources should be developed and improved to the greatest possible extent."(37)

With the cooperation of friendly nations and the world organization, agricultural specialists arrived in Libya to cope with the problem of improving and expanding agricultural production.

Agronomists experimented with new types of seeds, and experimental farms were incorporated to test the new varieties. The loose, sandy soil was found conducive to the growth of peanuts, or groundnuts as they are known in Libya. This crop has since become the principal export crop of the country.(38)

As the existing farmlands began to produce better cereal and vegetable crops, the need for reclaiming some of the desert wasteland became apparent. The Italians had, during their domination of Libya, made appreciable gains in land reclaimation. However, during the war and the years following it, this land, being uncared for, was little by little lost to the desert.

The first step taken in land reclamation was a scheme known locally as "dune fixation." In this scheme, Bermuda, or crab grass, is planted in square patterns, each several meters long. When viewed from the air, this pattern looks like a mass of picture frames placed end to end. The purpose of this scheme is to permit the roots of the grass to grow deep, thereby serving as an anchor to the sandy soil. This is necessary, since the land being reclaimed shifts from place to place with each successive breeze.

(37)United Nations, General Assembly, Communication of the Libyan Prime Minister, (A/3961, September 17, 1958) (New York), p. 1.

(38)United States Foreign Service Despatch (No. 188) (Tripoli: January 12, 1959), p. 9.

Some of the land, using "dune fixation, was slated for reforestation. Young Eucalyptus trees were planted in the center of each square. This tree, which requires the minimum of moisture to grow, further anchored the loose soil. In addition to their use in government forest preserves, some trees were given to Libyan farmers to provide shade and to help anchor the soil of their farms.

Throughout the three provinces, numerous wells, some dating back to the Roman era, permitted irrigation on a small scale. The irrigation method used in Libya was antiquated. Crops were planted in small patches, each enclosed by a mud wall several inches in height. This method, while economical with precious water, can only be satisfactorily used where small-yield farming is practiced. Since the nation was in dire need of expanding its agricultural production, American-style irrigation was adopted in lieu of the old system. This method, used where entire fields are to be irrigated, was met with a major barrier when the government informed the foreign agricultural specialists that it could not afford to import the necessary water pipes required for large-scale irrigation. Another method had to be found.

The agricultural specialists discovered that caliche deposits, a clay impregnated with crystalline salts, was very plentiful in certain areas of Libya. This clay could be molded in the same manner as cement, and was available at a minimal cost. A Point Four agricultural station experimented with the local material and it was found to be satisfactory. Thus, the canal linings for future irrigation schemes were guaranteed.

Another constructive measure introduced to improve agriculture was waterspreading. In Libya, were the annual rainfall is less than nine

inches per year, the winter, or rainy season, is quite short. In the past, the winter rains would fall in the mountains and the water would rush down and across the plains, only to be wasted in the sea. A way had to be found by which the water could be slowed down sufficiently to permit its absorption into the dry soil. Waterspreading was the answer.

The principle of waterspreading is not new. It was first used in Libya by the Romans during the Second Century. Had these earlier engineers possessed a modern transit which would have permitted them to follow the earth's contours with their dikes, waterspreading would have been perfected nearly 2000 years ago. As it was, their dams and dikes had to be repaired after each heavy rainfall.

The theory of waterspreading is simply the holding of water in one place long enough to permit it to be absorbed into the ground. To do this, a dam is constructed across a known flood path. As the rushing water hits the dam, it backs up and forms a pond. Excess water then runs off along curved dikes to the adjacent area, where it is again held. A series of these dikes are so constructed to keep the water moving in an ever-increasing area away from the normal river (Wadi) bed. In this manner, the water is slowed down sufficiently to enable the parched land to absorb most of it. In well-designed systems, less than one per cent of the water escapes to the sea.(39)

The absorption, or penetration of water into the soil, determines the size and quality of crops to be grown on the land. In some countries

(39) [Patrick J. Mahoney, III], Waterspreading in Libya, (Beirut, Lebanon: Near East Regional Service Center, (USIA), 1955), p. 4.

where clay makes up the greater part of the soil, only nine inches of water penetration is needed to grow a crop of barley. In sandy soil, as in Libya, 30 to 36 inches of penetration is needed to grow the same crop of barley, and to get this amount of penetration, water must be held from eight to ten hours. Free, unchecked water will run its course in only four to five hours. Thus, the need for waterspreading.

The government sponsored two such schemes in the Wadi Beni Ulid and Wadi Targallat areas of Tripolitania. Workers for these projects were paid for their labor in American gift wheat, and the overall supervision of the project was directed by Mr. Don Davis, a range management specialist employed by the American Point Four program.

The completed projects were put to a severe test during the unusually heavy rains of April, 1955. Their success prompted the Libyan government to offer similar facilities to the farmers of the area. Where heavy machinery was used in the construction of the pilot systems, Libyan farmers were taught to build smaller systems utilizing camel power and man power. These systems proved to be successful against smaller water courses.

* * *

RESETTLEMENT OF DISPLACED PERSONS

With Libyan independence, the government became aware of the existing hardships of a potential agricultural force--landless young farmers. These men, and their fathers before them, had been employed by wealthy Italian land owners, and with Libya's independence, they



Irrigation channels made from local caliche were used at the Wadi Caam resettlement scheme. 12,500 linear meters of these canals were constructed and lined before the first family resettled at the reclamation site.

no longer had a job. They did not have capital with which to buy land, nor even to buy seed and fertilizer had they owned land. The Ministry of Agriculture came up with a plan to resettle these young men and their families in order to utilize their farming skills in contributing to the deficient food production of the country.

The site chosen for this project was near Wadi Caam, eighty-six miles east of Tripoli. Located near one of the two flowing streams in the country, the site selected consisted of a 720-acre plot which would support 120 families.

The first step in this project concerned the building of a large-scale irrigation system to utilize the water from Wadi Caam, instead of letting it escape to the sea. Caliche canals were used extensively in this project, thereby reducing the overall cost.

The land was then cleared by modern machine methods, and the first families selected for resettlement began to arrive. This step was in conjunction with a community development program of the Libyan-American Joint Services. Fifty-four houses were constructed, and 36,780 man-days of employment were given to Libyan laborers. Each of the fifty-four farms were then planted with $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres of grain and an acre of alfalfa.(40) With the allocation of additional funds to the resettlement program, the balance of the 120 houses will be constructed in this, the pilot resettlement scheme in the country.

* * *

(40)Libyan-American Joint Services, Wadi Caam Resettlement Scheme, (Tripoli: June 18, 1959), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

PRESENT AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS

Since agriculture is the present mainstay of the Libyan economy, a look at some recent statistics will indicate the progress made in this field in the past two years. Food for the local market has become increasingly plentiful, and each year the increase tends to stabilize the cost index for food, temporarily offsetting a growing inflation.(41)

SALES OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS
IN TRIPOLI'S GENERAL MARKET
January - October
(metric tons)

Product	Measure	1957	1958
Local Wheat	tons	155	274
Barley	"	2, 000	2,267
Maize	"	38	66
Potatoes	"	1,752	2,424
Onions	"	1,380	403
Tomatoes	"	2,213	1,490
Broad Beans	"	76	101
Dried Pepper	"	36	122
Eggs	dozen	117,207	141,662
Olive Oil	liter	212,500	360,000
Manteca	"	61,400	37,900

These figures and the agricultural export statistics for the same period, reflect the improvement in farm production within the country.(42) While these figures represent only those from one province, they are sufficient for the desired measurement. This is due to the fact that Tripolitania has the major protion of the nation's population, and the figures for Cyrenaica, while considerably lower, are in approximate proportion to those of Tripolitania. Figures for the Fezzan, the southern desert province, are unavailable, and as far as exports are concerned

(41) Report of Tripolitania Nazirate of Agriculture, January, 1959.

(42) Report of Department of Agriculture, Administration of Tripolitania, 1959.

the only crop raised there in sufficient quantity for export is dates, and even this crop is exportable but one year in three due to lack of sufficient rainfall in the province.

TRIPOLITANIAN EXPORTS
January - October
(metric tons)

Product	1957	1958	Product	1957	1958
Peanuts	6,182	6,691	Oranges	1,233	2,553
Potatoes	2,231	671	Castor Seeds	1,132	1,976
Barley	0	1,003	Almonds	117	453
Wheat	0	500	Carrubes	225	342
Tomatoes	59	214	Dates	14	135
Lemons	161	81	Tangerines	9	74
Carrots	82	105	Millet	128	94
Melons	1	70	Fresh Peas	10	47
Grapefruit	18	39	Plums	10	36
Apricots	15	30	Fresh Beans	25	25
Green Peppers	14	25	Onions	12	0
Sheep Skins	311	302	Wool	133	170
Goat Skins	103	213	Goat Hair	25	53
Cattle Hides	122	107	Camel Hair	22	8

Where the foreign market will have to be increased if Libyan foreign credit is to be extended, the bulk of the past and present exports have been directed to Malta and Italy. Libyan wines, which rival the products of Tunisia and Algeria, must be exported. It's only market locally is among foreigners and to the Italian and Jewish minorities. This is due to the tenets of the Moslem faith which forbids the consumption of alcoholic beverages. At present, negotiations are underway in an attempt to find a market for Libyan wines in Germany and France.(43)

(43)Foreign Service Despatch, Op. cit., p. 9.

PUBLIC RELATIONS PROBLEMS IN AGRICULTURE

The public relations problems which arose in this area accompanied the introduction of modern agricultural methods and practices by the Ministry of Agriculture. These methods, which were to supplant the old, time-proven methods that had existed in Libya for centuries, created a public relations problem which the government had not anticipated.

Agricultural specialists of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and the American Point Four Program (ICA), began publicizing on a nation-wide basis the advantages of the hybrid grain and new variety of vegetable seeds. The Ministry supplemented this effort by broadcasting their official sanction of the large-scale planting methods that were to be introduced. Their combined efforts did little to change the attitudes of the Libyan farmers who had for centuries used the old accepted methods in producing their marginal crops.

The government then realized that before they could expect these farmers to change their farming habits, they would first have to offer them something better. They further realized that the written and spoken word of the media could not accomplish this alone. The farmers simply had to be shown.

Agricultural research stations set up two model farms on which the new hybrid grain seed and the improved varieties of vegetable seed were introduced. The resulting crops provided visible proof to the farmers that the government had their best interest in mind when they advocated the modern agricultural expansion program. Farmers came great distances to visit these experimental stations, and to see for themselves the

kinds of crops that could be raised in Libya, and on a large scale. It required no agricultural specialist to recognize hearty vegetables. The farmer could see for himself. The planting methods were explained to groups of farmers while they were visiting the model installation.

The most effective public relations tool in this project (which is still going on today) was, and is, word of mouth. This tool accomplished more than all the media combined.

Other agricultural projects produced still greater public relations problems. For example, after the government had proven the waterspreading principle to the farmers of the Beni Ulid and Wadi Targallat areas, the suggestion was made that similar but smaller systems could be constructed by local farmers for use on their own lands. These farmers, who had seen the projects constructed by modern machine methods, doubted that the small farmer could duplicate the system, even on a smaller scale, because of the lack of needed machinery.

When government spokesmen told the farmers that machinery was not needed for the construction of a small system, the farmers smiled and went their way. Had they not seen the big tractors and earth moving equipment? Did the government officials expect them to move such large amounts of earth by hand? What does that "big-shot" know about farming anyway?

The Ministry of Agriculture asked the assistance of American Point Four specialists in helping to build acceptance for the small-scale waterspreading system. These specialists, with the help of Libyan laborers, constructed a small waterspreading system entirely by man

power and camel power. Four additional hand-and-camel projects were then constructed at Sirte which covered approximately 30 acres.(44) Two of the projects were subjected to heavy rainfall soon after completion, and exhibited appreciable results. In the Nalut-Uazzen area of western Tripolitania, two small hand-built systems were constructed. Since their completion, sweet clover has been grown of a size and quality unknown to the area. Experience has shown that these small systems can be built at a cost of approximately $4.00 per acre of ground covered by the waterspread.

In the past, it was not uncommon to discover instances where a farmer planted his crop, and when the yield was minimal, he accepted this misfortune as "the will of Allah."

Today, with the introduction of modern agricultural methods, the Libyan farmer now realizes that he himself contributes greatly to the size and quality of his harvest. Chemical fertilizer has been made available for the first time in history to the small Libyan farmer, and another public relations effort has resulted in a regional "self-help" program, in which the farmer is loaned needed equipment and permitted to purchase seed and fertilizer from the government at cost.(45)

Funds for this program came from the Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission. This organization, established by Parliamentary statute in April, 1955, consists of a Libyan chairman, (The Minister of Finance) and three other Libyan and two American members. Its executive director,

(44)See Appendix "B", p. 8.

(45)Royal Institute of International Affairs, Libya, A Brief Political and Economic Survey, July, 1956, p. 18.

Mr. Irvin Hannum, is an American, and unlike the Public Development and Stabilization Agency, whose activities are quite similar, it is not a Libyan Government agency.(46) This organization manages the American technical and economic assistance funds of the Libyan-American Joint Services.

* * *

THE HOPE FOR A NEW NATIONAL PRODUCT

If the day arrives when Libya can feed all of its people and have enough left over to export on a large scale, the economy of the country will still be seriously hampered for future progress unless a new national product, one of great commercial value, can be developed within the country.

Today, the country's main hope lies in the search for petroleum deposits whose discovery in commercial quantities would rescue Libya, as it has other Arab states, from its existing marginal economy.(47) In June of 1955, a Petroleum Law was published and a Petroleum Commission was set up under the supervision of the Minister of National Economy. This commission regulated the terms on which concessions would be granted to oil companies. The basic tenet of these regulations calls for an equal division of profits between the concessionnaire and the Libyan government.

(46) Great Britain, Report on Libya, (Central Office of Information, No. R/3682, August 13, 1957), p. 15. (Mimeographed)

(47) Ibid., p. 11.

Following the establishment of the petroleum law, fifteen companies from the United States, Great Britain, The Netherlands, France, and Germany applied for and received large concessions. Exploration for the most part was limited to surface and subsurface geophysical surveys.

The Petroleum Commission set a 1960 deadline for the full exploration of each concession. With time growing short, many of the oil companies have begun sinking "wildcat" wells on their concessions before the 1960 deadline is reached. On this date, 25 per cent of each concession must be released to the Petroleum Commission for possible reassignment to other companies.

The results of these "wildcat" operations have been encouraging. The Oasis Company (Ohio Oil Company), has located oil at Bahi, (600 barrels a day) and at Dahra, (500 barrels a day). Esso had a promising, but as yet unevaluated, strike near the Algerian border, as did the French company, Compagnie des Petroles, in the Fezzan. In all, there are eight companies at present engaged in "wildcat" operations.(48)

The most heartening news to date was the recent (June 12, 1959) announcement by Esso Standard (Libya) Inc., of an oil strike at their Zelton concession in the heart of the Cyrenaican Desert. This well produced 17,500 barrels per day, and was "brought in" and tested for 12 hours. The production from this well is from limestone between the depths of 5,460 and 5,665 feet.

The Libyan people are watching the current oil explorations with keen interest. Indeed, the location of oil in commercial quantities may

(48)Foreign Service Despatch, Op. cit., p. 18.

make all the difference in the world to the standards of living of all Libyans. Oil would immediately change the nation's passive budget into one of flourishing surplus.(49)

Even if the search for "black gold" does not reach the level anticipated, the Libyan economy has been substantially bolstered by oil exploration within the country. One American company alone, Esso (Libya), has spent nearly $25,000,000 to date in the country. Other American, British, French, Dutch and German companies have spent an estimated $150,000,000 in Libya.(50)

* * *

The public relations problems of the Libyan government in dealing with oil exploration involved labor unions, choice of concessions, water rights to Bedouin tribesmen, and living conditions of Libyan laborers in remote oil camps. Externally, the public relations problems entailed keeping the major oil companies interested in Libya as a possible source of oil, and to the establishment and maintaining of a good relationships between the Petroleum Commission and the concessionnaires..

Internally, many public relations problems developed at the concession sites. For example, certain oil companies were persuaded to drill water wells near their camp sites to provide water for the flocks of Bedouin tribesmen. The government exerted this effort and the oil companies cooperated because the concessions were located on tribal lands.

(49)Hefter, Op. cit., p. 37.

(50)Standard Oil Company (New Jersey), News Release, (June 12, 1959), p. 3.

The drilling of water wells, while an additional expense to the oil companies, created a better feeling among the tribesmen and a healthier situation for all concerned. These efforts were accomplished by government officials, not through mandatory decree, but by sympathetic cooperation of both concessionnaire and government.

In dealing with the anti-Western Petroleum Workers' Union, the oil companies had some uncomfortable days during December, 1958. Union-inspired criticism had appeared in the nation's press condemning existing wage levels and working conditions. Public relations-minded government officials sought to work out a solution for these problems, and in effect, served in a concilliation capacity. These officials soon discovered that the criticism directed toward the oil companies centered on some local contractors utilized by the oil companies, and not the companies themselves.(51)

Agreement was reached on a minimum wage for unskilled Libyan laborers, and some long-overdue measures were adopted to ameliorate the harsh living conditions that had prevailed in some of the camps in the past.

* * *

EXPLOITING THE MOST PLENTIFUL PRODUCT

When an underdeveloped nation emerges to independence, it must have some form of barter to enable it to procure the necessary external financial backing. In some countries, known mineral deposits may be exploited to gain this assistance. Where the presence of mineral deposits in commercial quantity is only speculative, as in Libya, the new nation must seek another product to procure foreign capital.

(51)Foreign Service Despatch, Op. cit., p. 24.

In Libya, the most plentiful product of the country at the time of its independence was real estate. The government very wisely concluded military base rights agreements with two major Western powers, thereby assuring the nation a source of external technical and economic assistance funds, as well as external protection of the new state.

The first such military agreement was concluded between Libya and Great Britain. The ties between the two nations have been very close since the British Eighth Army liberated the country during World War II. British military forces remained in Libya after the war where they served as administrators of the provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. After Libyan independence was proclaimed in 1951, negotiations by both nations sought to give the presence of British military units in the country legal form. The legality was sought in a form which would not derogate in any way from Libya's dignity and sovereign independence. Following a visit by the Libyan Prime Minister to London, the two countries signed a Treaty of Friendship and Alliance at Benghazi on June 29, 1953.

Under the provisions of this treaty the two countries agreed to assist one another in the event either nation was engaged in "war or armed conflict", and to consult together if hostilities appeared imminent. These provisions were not to prejudice rights and obligations arising from the United Nations Charter or the Covenant of the Arab League. The two countries also agreed to provide each other all military facilities and assistance in their power in order to provide for mutual defense. In return for facilities accorded to the British military forces in Libya, Britain agreed to provide financial assistance to its ally. From 1952

to the end of 1958, Britain has provided over 21 million pounds ($58,880,000) in direct economic and technical assistance funds, in addition to several interest-free loans. Under the articles of their treaty, Britain has also undertaken the training and equipping of a 10,000-man Libyan Army.

In return for this financial assistance, the British received the right to station military forces in Libya.(52) District military headquarters for British forces are located at Tripoli and Benghazi, with communications and logistic centers located in and around these capital cities. The Royal Horse Artillery is stationed at Homs, in Tripolitania, and Armoured Regiments are permanently stationed at Sabratha, in Tripolitania, and in Barce, in Cyrenaica. In addition to army forces in Libya, Britain's Royal Air Force maintains a detachment at Idris International Airport in Tripoli, and a squadron-size detachment at El Adem, near Tobruk, in Cyrenaica.(53)

* * *

Libya also benefits from large economic and technical assistance grants from the United States. These grants grew out of the Libyan-American Base Rights Agreement signed on September 9, 1954, following a visit of the Libyan Prime Minister to Washington. Under this agreement, which is valid until December 24, 1970, and continuing thereafter on a basis of one year's notice of termination, the Americans were allowed to "occupy and develop for military purposes" an airfield located a few

(52)Report on Libya, Op. cit., p. 13.

(53)Ibid.

miles east of Tripoli. This base, Wheelus Field, is at present the largest American air facility outside the continental limits of the United States, and is headquarters of the 17th U. S. Air Force. Aircraft at this 150 million dollar installation(54) are responsible for the security of a Mediterranean area exceeding the size of the United States itself.(55) The U. S. Air Force also maintains a small installation at Benghazi, as well as guided missile test ranges in the Tripolitanian desert.

The agreement specified that American aircraft should enjoy rights of access and egress from its installations, and it was further provided that nothing in the treaty should conflict with the United Nations Charter or Libyan obligations as a member of the Arab League. In return, the Americans undertook to provide 40 million dollars which will be paid over the eighteen years to 1971 inclusive. During the first seven years of the agreement, payment is to be made at the rate of four million dollars annually, and afterwards, at one million dollars per year. The bulk of Libyan external financial assistance was assured by the final provisions of the agreement. This provision stipulates that the American government will "consider sympathetically" further requirements for economic aid.

Since 1954, American assistance funds have benefited Libya by 18 to 20 million dollars annually. The total aid since 1954 has exceeded 85 million dollars in technical assistance. These figures do not include

(54) Mary Thayer, Washington Post & Times-Herald, January 26, 1958, p. 25.

(55) United Press International dispatch, Tripoli, February 18, 1959.

land rentals and other military payments to the Libyan government.(56) During three successive crop failures caused by drought conditions in the country, Libya was provided with nearly 50,000 tons of relief wheat by the United States in direct grants.(57)

* * *

Here, then, are the results of Libyan diplomacy in exploiting the nation's most plentiful commodity. While these efforts are primarily in the field of diplomacy, certain everyday public relations principles were used by the Libyan government in acquiring the most advantageous position possible. These real estate agreements enabled the country to proceed on its course to economic stability until such time as agriculture and possible mineral resources are developed to their highest degree.

It should be mentioned, however, that Libya's strategic geographic position preempted its ability to negotiate for such financial assistance. In the current East-West cold war struggle, Libyan real estate, (which is less than three hours flying time to the Soviet Union) became far more valuable than had the country been located elsewhere in Central or Southern Africa. Its strategic locale, therefore, was the chief bargaining power for Libyan diplomats in their motivation and desire to improve the lot of the Libyan nation.

Libyan officials were quite active public relationswise in their dealings with American and British military personnel in the country.

(56)New York Times, December 2, 1958, p. 31.

(57)Report on Libya, Op. cit., p. 14.

Permits to military personnel allow duty-free entry of personal possessions, such as automobiles, furniture, etc. While these exemptions to Libyan import laws might be interpreted as "preferential treatment," the Libyan government was aware that foreign military spending within the country would greatly enhance the Libyan economy, and would provide much-needed employment for many of its people. The "preferential treatment" was, therefore, justified.

* * *

SUMMARY

As agriculture is the present heart of the Libyan economy, the government had directed the major portion of its efforts in this area. As in other areas, public relations problems emerged from pressing national problems, and agriculture was no exception.

The major public relations problem in this area concerned the creation of a favorable acceptance to new agricultural methods and procedures. This was accomplished in spite of strong tribal and provincial attitudes toward farming. Actual model farms were constructed and stocked with new hybrid grain seed and with improved varieties of vegetable seed. The resulting crops served as visible proof of the new methods, and word-of-mouth was probably more influential in changing the attitudes of Libyan farmers than all the media efforts combined.

Similar difficulty was encountered when other government projects designed to improve the agricultural production of the country were introduced. Such projects as "dune fixation," the incorporation of modern

irrigation methods, waterspreading, and the resettlement of landless farmers, all required considerable public relations efforts before their acceptance was obtained. When people have been farming in one manner for centuries, it takes more than media efforts to make them change. If they can be shown visible proof of the value of new methods, then they are likely to change. Such was the case in Libya, and the public relations efforts of the Libyan government in the construction of model schemes, constituted their major efforts in these areas. Thereafter, the public relations efforts entailed little more than an occasional publicity campaign of completed projects in order to maintain the interest of the farm bloc.

In the search for oil--the principal hope for a stabilized economy--brought about public relations problems unknown in the new country.

The problems confronting the government were difficult, and it meant that the government would have to be concerned with foreigners living in their country. As such, the problems required careful handling. The government knew that it must encourage foreign oil firms to look for the "black gold" in their country, since the technical skills necessary for such an enterprise were not available among its citizenry.

At the same time, it meant the government would have to be concerned with the foreign company's internal personnel policies in such matters as minimum wage laws and the living conditions of Libyan employees at the remote desert camps.

One such problem was mediated by government officials which disclosed that a malpractice claim against a particular oil firm should

have been directed against a local contractor employed by the firm. This settlement, and subsequent improvement in the living standards of Libyan employees maintained the status quo.

* * *

In exploiting Libya's most plentiful commodity--real estate--the government became involved in international public relations. From Britain and the United States, Libyan diplomats acquired vast economic and technical assistance funds in return for military base rights agreements. In accomplishing this, the Libyan government made sure that no infringement on Libyan sovereignty was possible, thus retaining its national dignity.

The public relations efforts in this area resulted in Libya's ability to proceed on its course to economic stability until such time as its agriculture and possible natural resources could be exploited to their fullest degree.

CHAPTER V

Libya, like most of the North African littoral, enjoys a healthy climate. While its people are robust and generally healthy, they are subjected to a number of serious diseases, three of which have reached alarming proportion.

An early survey conducted by the World Health Organization (WHO), revealed that while having special health problems, Libya was virtually free from many of the diseases which normally plague underdeveloped nations. Typhoid and cholera, for example, are usually contracted by drinking contaminated water from rivers or ponds. Where people have to get their water from deep wells, as in Libya, the risk of getting these diseases are obviously much less.

In many countries of the Middle East, even washing in river water is dangerous because of a worm endemic to warm climates which causes a disease known as bilharzia. This worm causes serious infection to the bladder and intestines. Millions of people in the Nile Valley are infected with it annually, and it has been estimated that bilharzia decreases Egyptian production by over 30 per cent each year.(58) Since there are no rivers or ponds in Libya, a case of bilharzia is an extreme rarity.

Another disease prevelent in this part of the world is hookworm. Causing severe anemia, this germ breeds in damp soil, so obviously, it cannot thrive in Libya.

(58)D. K. Lindsay, "A Glance At Libya," World Health Organization Newsletter, VIII (January, 1955), p. 2.

Malaria, which causes more serious illness throughout the world than any other disease, is spread by a type of mosquito which breeds in ponds or stagnant water. In Libya, these conditions existed primarily in the coastal salt marshes near Tauorga, in Tripolitania, and after a concentrated effort by Libyan and American medical specialists, the incidence of malaria was greatly reduced, and the disease ceases to be a major health problem in the country.

What then are the major health problems in Libya? It is necessary to discuss them first, since the public relations problems facing the government in the health field are resultant from the national health problem.

Aside from the maladies common to us all, bronchitis, lumbago, indigestion, etc., there are three major health problems dangerous to the extent that the Libyan government allots 10 per cent of its national budget in combatting them. These diseases, and in their order of magnitude in Libya are, acute diarrhea, trachoma and tuberculosis.

The first problem, acute diarrhea, attacks primarily the babies of the country. All over the globe, according to the World Health Organization, this disease is the chief cause of death between the ages of one month and one year. It is particularly bad among Libyans, and about 5000 babies die of it there every year.

The causes of this disease are associated with poverty and ignorance, and the best way to prevent it in the long run is to raise the living standards of the people, and to teach mothers proper infant care.

The second major health problem is the eye disease known as trachoma. A disease endemic to most of the desert countries of the world, trachoma is especially prevelent in Libya. It has been estimated by United Nations medical specialists that nearly 30 per cent of all Libyan children have this disease. Locally, the incidence varies from place to place. In the village of Suk el Juma, a few miles east of Tripoli, the incidence is reported to be 80 per cent, but in other villages it is less than 4 per cent. While the disease is a major problem to government health officials, it is not nearly as serious as in some Middle Eastern countries.

The third major health problem is tuberculosis. Again, the incidence of this disease is not as bad as in other countries. While the exact statistics are not known, it is estimated that between twelve and fourteen hundred Libyans contract this disease annually. This is about the same proportion as in Britain, where there are 60,000 new cases of the disease each year.(59)

Here then are the three major health problems which have faced and plagued the infant Libyan government. The public relations problems which resulted from these health problems were many, and each varied considerably in their size and scope. Basically, they entailed a concentrated educational effort which utilized the media and medical specialists as lecturers in attacking the problem internally, and the diplomacy of Libyan government officials in seeking the financial assistance of friendly nations, as the external approach.

(59) Ibid., p. 4.

Budget-wise, the new government allocates about half a million pounds ($1,400,000) annually in the fight against disease. This figure represents approximately 10 per cent of the entire national budget, and is the usual proportion spent in countries which have a far greater health problem than Libya.

As a general prelude to initiating national health projects, the Libyan government, through the Ministry of Health, instituted a major sanitation program. Travelers are continually amazed at the cleanliness of the country, especially when compared with fellow Arab states. Tripoli has been called the cleanest city on the Mediterranean, and justifyable so. Certainly there are not many places in the world where the rubbishman calls twice a day as he does there. Government-employed street sweepers are to be seen everywhere, and modern street-cleaning vehicles have been imported to keep the main traffic arteries swept and watered down daily.

This sanitation effort is not only reserved for the larger cities, but has expanded rapidly into the smaller villages. The efforts in sanitation have been attributed to lowering the incidence of disease in the country.

The public relations efforts in the field of sanitation were directed toward publicizing the program to the extent that the population accepted and cooperated with the scheme, and to defending the government's decision of employing such a large number of street sweepers, rubbishmen, etc. As to the latter, many felt that the employing of a "small army" of street sweepers and rubbishmen was a drain on the na-

tional economy, and felt that the money could be put to better use in other programs. It became the job of the Ministry of Health to justify their actions, and to create a favorable attitude toward the sanitation program by means of the media of the press and radio.

Once the sanitation program was successfully underway, attention was given to the principal disease problems. The Ministry, with the cooperation of the World Health Organization and the Libyan-American Joint Public Health Service, systematically introduced corrective public health measures.(60)

The handling of food in markets and restaurants has come under government regulations. Daily inspection of the premises by sanitation employees has become routine. The slaughter of animals for the meat markets of the country now must meet given government standards, as does the processing and canning of fish.(61) As yet, there are no government regulations requiring the pasturization of milk, but this will come in time.

These efforts in the sanitation field are presented here to show a few of the measures adopted by the Libyan government in an effort to reduce the overall susceptability to disease. Other measures, such as the draining of marshlands, a preventive measure in the war against malaria, the chemical spraying of livestock to prevent meat infection, and the repairing of wells in the drive for cleaner drinking water, were all among the early steps taken by the Ministry of Health.

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(60)Hefter, Op. cit., p. 44.

(61)Embassy of the United Kingdom of Libya, "Highlights on Libya," Washington, D. C., 1958, p. 4. (Mimeographed)

MEDICAL FACILITIES

Following the institution of a sanitation program, the Ministry of Health turned its attention to the problem of expanding and improving existing medical facilities. Having but a few hospitals, and these located in the major cities, the new Ministry consulted with the World Health Organization authorities and with specialists of the American Point Four Program (ICA). A survey conducted established the minimums under which the new Ministry would operate. Though the greater proportion of health funds came from these two organizations, at no time did either attempt to direct the efforts of the new Libyan agency. Their purpose was to advise only, and the actual direction of the new Ministry was entirely in the hands of the Libyan government.

With independence, the Libyan government took over all former Italian hospitals. This gave Libya the nucleus for their new medical facilities. In all, there are only twenty-one hospitals in the country.(62) In the early days, many of these were inadequately equipped and greatly understaffed. The first of these two problems was relatively simple to correct. The world organization and friendly nations were quick to provide the necessary equipment, but the staffing of these hospitals was more difficult.

As with the national educational problem, foreigners had to be recruited to staff the new facilities. Middle-Eastern and European doctors, notably Italian, arrived in Libya to take over the staffing of the existing hospitals. As new hospitals are constructed, the recruiting of additional doctors becomes an acute problem for the

(62)Lindsay, Op. cit.

Ministry. As of today, the shortage of doctors in the country is indeed acute. Where there should be a minimum of 1000 doctors for a country of Libya's size, there is actually only slightly more than 100. The tradgedy of the situation lies in the fact that while additional doctors are available for service in Libya, the government simply cannot afford to employ more. This problem is currently an item on the agenda of Libyan diplomats, for funds to permit the hiring of additional doctors can come only from external sources.

There is even a greater shortage of nurses in the country. In 1953, there were only sixty-four women in Libya who were trained nurses, fifty-one of them in Cyrenaica, and all of these were foreigners.(63) A School of Nursing was opened two years ago to train native girls, but it takes three years to qualify as a nurse in Libya, the first class has yet to graduate.(64)

To help out during the existing shortage of nurses, there are over 400 medical orderlies working in the nation's hospitals and dispensaries. The bulk of these people are native Libyans and Italians, and all have had elementary nursing training. Some of them are remarkably efficient and dedicated, considering that they are only paid LL 2 ($5.60) per week.(65)

To supplement the extreme shortage of hospitals, the Ministry of Health has constructed 150 government dispensaries scattered throughout the country. These dispensaries have an annual turnover of 1½ million

(63)Ibid.

(64)Hefter, Op. cit., p. 44.

(65)Lindsay, Op. cit.

patients, and for the most part are staffed by medical orderlies. They are visited, usually once a week, by a doctor who takes care of the more serious cases. The United Nations has provided fifteen vehicles for the doctors who make these rounds.(66)

American funds contributed to the Libyan-American Joint Health Service, have provided three "Clinicars," mobile medical clinics. Designed to spread medical facilities over the vast desert community, this service is aimed primarily to the under priveleged persons living in isolated villages and to nomadic tribes. The four-wheel drive vehicles enables the government to provide medical facilities in areas formerly inaccessable.(67)

In addition to the American contributions already cited, American economic assistance funds, which amounts to between eighteen and twenty million dollars annually, underwrites a major portion of the nation's health budget. Considering that eighty-five million dollars has been contributed by the United States to Libya since 1954, the American taxpayer has certainly contributed greatly toward the health and welfare of the Libyan people.(68) While this figure may seem staggering to some, it is actually quite small in comparison with similar American grants extended to other nations.

A portion of the assistance funds assigned to the Ministry of Health have been earmarked for the equipping and repairing of hospitals in Tripoli, Benghazi, Misurata, Tobruk and Sebha. In addition, these

(66)New York Times, July 18, 1952, p. 28.

(67)Ibid., December 2, 1958, p. 31.

(68)Ibid.,

funds have made possible the construction and equipping of dispensaries in all three provinces.

The financing of sanitation programs throughout the country is also made possible through these funds. Such programs as malaria control, typhus suppression and sewage disposal, exist primarily through the assistance of American, British, and United Nations contributions.

* * *

ATTACKING THE HEALTH PROBLEMS

It is when attacking the national health problems that the public relations problems emerge. True, some public relations efforts had to be exerted in the area of preventive medicine, i.e., in the area where personal and community sanitation and hygiene schemes were introduced, but the major public relations problems emerge with the recognition and attacking of the national health problems.

For example, according to the World Health Organization survey, the first major health problem is that of acute diarrhea. This disease, which causes 5000 deaths among Libyan infants yearly, is the product of poverty and ignorance. Theorists will say that the problem can be eliminated by simply raising the living standards of the people. They will even concede that this is a long-range problem, but nevertheless, while this long-range problem exists, 5000 Libyan children are dying each year. To raise the living standards of any nation is a vast undertaking. When the nation is labeled underdeveloped, a nation as desperately poor as Libya, the problem is then greatly magnified. The raising

of a nation's living standards is composed of many facets, economic, educational, and even spiritual. It is far more difficult to accomplish than it is to prescribe.

Before discussing the problem of acute diarrhea, the author would like to present an account of an interview with a European doctor who is employed by the Libyan-American Joint Health Service. This account will point out an existing social condition in Libya which shows the degree of poverty and ignorance that contributes to the pitifull health standards in rural areas. It must be understood, however, that this condition is not universal in Libya, but it does exist among certain minority groups, like the nomadic tribes.

First of all, for a tribal woman to go to a male doctor, is in violation of a social taboo. As previously stated, only the husband, father, and immediate family may see the unveiled face of a grown woman. Examining a woman's body is, therefore, out of the question. In rare cases, where a woman doctor is available (as in Benghazi), a tribal woman may submit to a medical examination, but even then she is likely to be accompanied by another female member of her family.

Under such circumstances, it is not surprising that childbearing among the nomads is accomplished under the most primitive conditions.

According to the doctor interviewed, it is not uncommon for an expectant mother in a nomad tribe to go off by herself in the desert as her time draws near. She burrows a hole in the sand, and lowering herself into it, awaits the coming of her child in solitude. As the child is born, the mother cuts the umbilical cord with two sharp stones, and

ties it with a bit of rag taken from her heavily henna-dyed hair. She then lies there nursing her child until she is strong enough to walk back to the tribal area.(69)

Under these conditions, it is not surprising that so many children die during their first few months of life. And until such time as Libya has sufficient women doctors and nurses, the situation is likely to remain as critical.

It must be repeated, however, that the above example concerns only a minority, and should not be interpreted as being typical of the entire nation. Certainly, the health standards in Libyan urban centers are equal to any in the Middle East.

In attacking the prime health problem of the country, the Ministry realized that it had a major public relations problem on its hands. Their first efforts in rectifying the situation entailed the institution of a nation-wide educational process. This was necessary for the changing of archaic attitudes held by many people. Health films, portraying action taken against acute diarrhea in other countries were shown free of charge at night in the town squares. British and American mobile units (cinema vans) were used in this project, another example of the cooperation given the Libyan government by friendly nations. These vans enabled the Ministry of Health to expand its efforts in reaching the majority of the population. The films, made in Arab countries with Arab casts, brought the problem directly to the Libyan people, and, along with concentrated efforts of the Ministry in the nation's press,

(69)Interview with Dr. James Allen, Libya-American Joint Health Service, November 4, 1956.

was successful in changing the attitudes of many people toward personal hygiene, infant diet and care. Talks by Libyan Health officials and Arabic-speaking medical specialists usually followed the film presentations. The radio medium was also utilized, as were government-sponsored editorials in the nation's newspapers. Health classes conducted in the Libyan school system also furthered the aims of the Ministry of Health.

It is also anticipated that when the first group of Libyan women are graduated from nurses training, the Ministry's aim to reach all of its people, especially its women, will be greatly enhanced. As more and more women take an active role in health and education, the old social problem concerning the inferior status of women should be greatly reduced, thereby accomplishing a two-fold purpose.

The public relations problems concerning the improvement of the health problems from the external point of view, i.e., in the securing of foreign financial and technical assistance for health projects, came early in the nation's independence. Originally, these efforts entailed little more than the careful wording of assistance requests to be presented to the world organization and to friendly nations. Subsequently, they have evolved into the conducting of surveys, the measurement of effectiveness of particular projects, and the preparation of reports, charts and graphs to show nations contributing to Libya, where and how their money is being spent. This is done primarily as an obligation which the Libyan government feels it has to its benefactors, and also as an aid for additional fund requests in the future.

* * *

Trachoma, the second greatest health problem in Libya, requires a major portion of the national health budget. A disease of the eyes, trachoma has been contracted by 30 per cent of the nation's school children, in addition to vast numbers of the adult population.

This disease, which has its origins in the lack of personal hygiene, develops in four stages: In the first stage, slight conjunctivitis of the anterior wall of the eye ball and lining of the eyelid occurs. This period ususally lasts several weeks. The second stage is the inflamatory period, which permits clinical diagnosis. The eyes become red and a mucus forms in them. This period may last from several months to several years. The third stage is marked by the appearance of scar tissue which leads to a cure of the disease. The final stage is that of healed trachoma. The scar tissue remains, and if the process is repeated over a period of time, it can lead to total blindness.(70)

The cause of this disease has been frequently cited by laymen as the lack of personal hygiene, specifically from not washing often enough. By this description, one would believe that those who contract trachoma have unclean habits. This is not entirely true, and two factors which play an important role in the spreading of trachoma should be mentioned at this time.

First of all, it should be remembered that in desert countries, especially in Libya, where the annual rainfall--the chief source of life giving water--is less than nine inches per year,(71) water is precious, and it becomes habit-forming to restrict its use to drinking

(70)Rosalie A. May, May's Manual of the Diseases of the Eyes, (22nd ed. rev., Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Co., 1957), pp. 124-25.

(71)[Patrick J. Mahoney III], Waterspreading in Libya, (Beirut, Lebanon: Near East Regional Service Center, (USIA), 1956), p. 2.

by humans and animals. Secondly, in the urban centers where an ample water supply exists, the economic pressure of a family living on ten piasters (28 cents) a day, precludes the investment of a few piasters for a bar of soap.(72)

These observations are not interjected by way of defense of the situation, but they do contribute to it, and as such, should be considered before making hasty judgments about a people who are in an unfortunate position. The problem, therefore, exceeds personal hygiene. It evolves from, and must be cured by, the economic conditions of the country. For if the living standards are not improved, the national health standards can never exceed the existing level. Living standards, of course, cannot be raised until the production of the country is greatly improved. This will take a long time.

Experience has proven that for effective trachoma control, drug therapy must be supported by community, home and personal hygiene. The realization of this premise produced many public relations headaches for the Ministry of Health. For example, how does a government agency tell a sensitive citizenry that they must keep their bodies clean? The earlier efforts were understandably vague, but by careful wording of editorials, posters, brochures, lectures and radio broadcasts, the message was successfully conveyed, and with a certain degree of visible achievement. While the exact degree of success is not known, the incidence of trachoma has noticeably decreased in the past few years

(72)Lindsay, Op. cit., p. 4.

(seventy-five per cent among school children during the year 1956).[73] It may be safely assumed that the public relations efforts in the anti-trachoma campaign have met with some success.

* * *

The third major health problem, tuberculosis, is currently receiving the major attention of the Libyan health authorities. The Ministry of Health has attacked the problem with vigor. It has employed a number of tuberculosis specialists, and the most modern treatment of the disease possible is now available in Libya.

Recently, His Excellency, King Idris, attended a cornerstone ceremony of a new multi-million dollar tuberculosis sanitarium. This hospital, located on a high coastal plateau near the runins of the ancient Greek city of Cyrene, will offer services equal to any tuberculosis sanitarium in the world when completed.[74] The presence of the Libyan monarch at this ceremony marks the importance of the project in the eyes of the Libyan people.

The major public relations problem in this area entailed getting tuberculin-infected people to admit that they had the disease, and to report to the hospital for treatment. This problem is similar to one in our own country less than a hundred years ago. At that time, to have tuberculosis was a family disgrace, and anyone suspected of having the disease was kept isolated and left to die.

(73)Report to the Prime Minister, Accomplishments of the Libyan Government Economic Development Program Made Possible By American Aid, (Tripoli: Government Printing Office, July 1, 1957), p. 25.

(74)Hefter, Op. cit.,

Unlike the earlier period in our own history, the disease can be cured today, or at least arrested to permit a normal life for the infected person. The elimination of the "incurable taboo", and the publicizing of the modern tuberculosis sanitarium, were the major public relations efforts in this problem.

* * *

THE GENERAL HEALTH PICTURE

Only eight short years since independence, Libya has made great strides in the fight against disease and the improvement of the national health standards.

With the aid of external financial assistance, the government has been able to build, remodel, equip and staff modern medical facilities. These hospitals, dispensaries (or ambulatoria, as they are known locally), and mobile "Clinicars", have extended public health facilities throughout the three provinces.

The establishment of a nurses training school has gone far to further the cause of medical assistance to Libyan womankind. Health programs under government supervision have been instituted in the nation's school system. In addition, trachoma treatment centers are maintained in connection with community centers, with an average inpatient load of about 4000 adults per month.(75) Public Health physicians supplement clinical drug therapy with eye surgery to prevent

(75)Report to the Prime Minister, Op. cit.

permanent trachoma injury. Sanitation, nursing and public health personnel provide direct support by intensive community group and home activities to teach basic public health and personal hygiene. The nursing staff, limited as it is, carry out extensive home visitation and group instruction to expectant mothers, and to mothers of pre-school children.

The Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission, the funding agency for the Libyan-American Joint Services, has allocated LL70,000 pounds, ($1,960,000) to the Ministry of Health for the construction and equipping of health training projects in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. These projects include a Nurses Training School, a Medical Assistant School, and several Child Health and Maternal Care Schools. These training institutions are supervised by the Ministry of Health with the assistance of the World Health Organization of the United Nations.

* * *

SUMMARY

The principal public relations problem facing Libya in the field of Health might be described as a job of selling. The selling was directed to only "two customers"--the Libyan people and the cooperative foreign nations.

From the internal viewpoint, the public relations efforts were directed to "selling" the Libyan government to its own people. They were literally shown that the health projects and policies instituted by the Ministry of Health were in their own interest, and more important,

required their help. In one respect, these efforts have been successful at least what has been done to date has been successful. There remains much to be done, however, and only through the sympathetic cooperation of the Libyan people, will future success be measured.

Externally, the Libyan government must continue to expand its efforts in keeping the contributing nations informed as to how their funds are being spent. This is necessary for two reasons: (1) It fulfills an obligation to the contributing nation which the Libyan government justifyably feels, and (2) It paves the way for any future requests for additional economic or technical assistance funds.

Also externally, the problem of getting foreign nations to extend educational facilities to Libyan students, especially medical students, should be a prime target for the governmental public relations staff. Their efforts to date have resulted in the sending of seven Libyan students abroad to attend foreign medical colleges.(76) Others have received foreign educational grants to study sanitation and other related fields. This effort must be continued and expanded until the day that Libya has its own medical college. There is no greater shortage in this underdeveloped nation than doctors. As Henry Ford II noted on the floor of the General Assembly of the United Nations, "Libya, at the time of her independence, had but one lawyer and NO doctors among her people.(77) With such an unpretentious beginning, the Libyan national health standards have only one way to go--up. The use of public relations should undoubtedly hasten the ascent.

(76)Ibid.

(77)United Nations, General Assembly, Assistance to Libya, (News Release No. 1851, December 4, 1953) (New York), p. 1.

CONCLUSION

When a former colonial possession emerges to full independence, the new nation, often underdeveloped, is beset with a magnitude of problems. These national problems are always accompanied by public relations problems, and the infant nation is usually lacking public relations minded officials. Such was the case in Libya.

In the absence of an organized public relations program, the new government proceeds on a hit-or-miss basis. Mistakes are made, some of which result in increasing rather than decreasing the existing public relations problems. Since organizational deficiencies are the rule rather than the exception, the hit-or-miss approach must suffice during the new nation's formative years. Should the country be fortunate enough to have United Nations or friendly nations support, the organizational deficiency is reduced to some degree. The appointment of foreign "advisors" to the new government by the World Organization can greatly reduce the margin of error in local government decisions. Again, such was the case in Libya.

The "advisor" system can lead to a great many internal public relations problems itself. The advisors may suggest or recommend, but never dictate if the national dignity of the new country is to be respected. If this concept is violated, even at the lowest level, additional public relations problems, often greater than the original, result.

The first public relations effort of any new nation should be directed toward unifying the nationalistic feeling within the country. Before any new nation can proceed on its course to economic and political

stability, the entire citizenry must possess some semblence of "oneness" or unity. As the Libyan government discovered, patriotism most readily lends itself to this cause.

Once the new government has the complete acceptance of its people, the nation is ready to attack the major national problems and the accompanying public relations problems facing them.

If the country bears the label "underdeveloped", and most new nations today will bear such a label, the first public relations efforts of the new government should be directed toward procuring external financial support. Where the new nation enjoys a strategic position in the geography of the "Cold War", financial assistance from major powers is most easily procured by the granting of foreign military base rights agreements. This is by no means the only way to procure the needed assistance, however, in underdeveloped nations, where mineral resources are unproven at the time of independence, the exploiting of "real estate" is often the quickest way to gain the needed financial help.

By treaty or agreements, the novice nation has its economy bolstered and gains the needed financial strength to attack the problems facing it. Another method used by some african nations with success entails the joining of a Commonwealth arrangement with a major power, however, this arrangement is made at the sacrifice of "complete" independence. The benefits of this approach can only be determined by the strength of the nationalistic feeling within the country.

Hand in hand with the problem of instilling nationalism in its people, is the problem of a national communications system. In former colonial possessions, the existing communications system at the time

of independence is likely to be inadequate. The existing system, while sufficient for a colonial possession, is far from satisfactory to that needed by a sovereign state. Entire areas are often isolated, and before a new government can fulfill its mission, the entire nation must be connected by ample communications.

Aside from radio, telegraph and telecommunications, the new nation must improve and expand existing surface communications. Roads, harbors and airport facilities must be improved within "budgetary limitations" imposed by a government that is underwritten by foreign financial grants and loans. Understandably, such an arrangement breeds public relations problems, problems that require careful handling and great diplomacy.

The government also has an obligation to consider its citizenry in carrying out projects that are in the national interest. It must keep its people informed about these projects, and without an ample communications network, this obligation is virtually impossible to fulfill.

Another scourge of the underdeveloped nation concerns its educational level. Emerging to independence from colonial status, many new nations have an unbelievable rate of illiteracy. When such a situation exists, the problem of educating its citizenry is a most pressing one, a problem which requires the new government's immediate attention.

In this area, the government usually experiences a great difficulty in making the people want an education. Such was not the case in Libya. Denied educational freedom for many years by their former Italian masters,

the Libyan people expressed a great desire for learning immediately following the Second World War. The interim British and French administrations expended little effort in encouraging this desire. The desire was present, and with independence, was manifested in the over-enrollment of the nation's existing schools. The greatest problem the new government faced in the field of education was the construction of new schools on a crash basis, and the procurement of sufficient foreign teachers to staff them.

After eight years of independence, Libya has progressed to the point of having a national university, and the establishment of teacher-training schools, as well as the formation of specialized educational institutions. The improvement of the educational level of the new nation cannot be overemphasized, as the future of the nation depends upon it.

In areas of the new country where tribal living is the rule, the need for education is even more acute. Boarding schools for nomadic children serve two purposes, in that they provide education for an underprivileged minority and while the children are attending school, the nomadic wanderings of the parents are more or less stabilized. In new nations where the population size is considerably smaller than the existing land size, the need for getting nomadic tribesmen to settle in one place constitutes a major problem for the government. Stabilized families make for a stabilized country, and only when this stabilization is achieved can the tribal people benefit from their government's projects.

This particular problem is directly concerned with the improvement

of the national economy. In new nations where agriculture plays the most important role, a larger agrarian personnel is needed, and the large nomadic minorities constitutes a source of possible manpower.

The next problem facing the novice government is that of improving the national economy. Where the country depends upon agriculture as its life's blood, new projects in this field are of prime importance. A hungry nation is a dissatisfied nation, and the new government's only hope for survival is based upon the feeding of its citizenry.

Where the new nation is composed largely of jungle or desert, as in Libya, the problem is even greater. The conversion of desert wastelands into farmland--a long-range effort--must be accomplished if the nation is to feed its own people. While the problem entails a great effort over many years, Libya has managed to increase its agricultural products output in only eight years to the point where its agricultural products today constitutes the nation's largest export commodity.

Land reforms and the introduction of new agricultural methods, large-scale irrigation, and water conservation have made possible the agricultural advancement in Libya. The major public relations efforts in this area have been directed toward gaining public acceptance of the new methods in face of strong tribal and provincial feeling. The success of the public relations efforts to date can be measured by the growth of the agricultural economy of the country.

In the field of national economy, the exploitation of national resources is essential. Until 1959, agriculture has held the nation together. Recently, however, the discovery of oil in commercial quantities

has given hope to the infant nation. With external foreign assistance agreements running out, this discovery now holds the fate of the nation. Should the results of oil exploration prove but one-half that of Iraq or Saudi Arabia, Libya's future is secure. Other mineral deposits, such as copper, coal and bauxite could greatly enhance the future economy of the country, and exploration for these minerals is currently underway.

But this is in the future. Present-day problems must be met and overcome. The problem of national health will not wait for the future. In Libya, as in other underdeveloped nations, the general health of its citizenry was appaling during the early days of independence. Two-thirds of the nation suffered from endemic trachoma. The scarceness of water demanded the limitation of its use to drinking by humans and animals. In urban communities where water was plentiful, the existing economic standards where a family was forced to live on 28 cents per day, precluded any investment in the "luxury" of soap. The health problem, therefore, is interrelated with the problem of improving the national economy.

Child birth and child care, especially in rural areas, is strongly interrelated with the national educational problem, and is directly concerned with the problem of national communications.

The author has, therefore, presented a series of five major problems which confronted the new nation virtually at its birth. They do not represent all or even a majority of the national problems facing an infant nation, but they do constitute the areas where the greatest difficulty may be anticipated.

All of these problems are interrelated with each other, and their order of importance as presented by the author are not dogmatic. Nations will vary from one to another, and the order of presentation in this thesis represents their importance as they existed in Libya. With the exception of the first problem, that of nationalism, the remaining problems may vary in importance or precedence in different countries.

* * *

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APPENDIX

"A."



WATERSPREADING IN LIBYA

This is the story of waterspreading.

Libya, like her fellow North African countries, is faced with a continual shortage of water. A parched, sun-baked land, void of any major rivers or lakes, Libya is faced with the monumental task of reclaiming desert wasteland in order to grow food for its people.

Aside from wells, rainfall constitutes Libya's only other source of this much-needed commodity. Like her neighbors, Libya is concentrating a great deal of time, labor and capital in an effort to solve the problem of harnessing rainfall. For a country like Libya, whose annual over-all rainfall is less than nine inches per year, the task is indeed monumental.



But the Libyan people have accepted the challange. In a few short years advances have been made that are a credit to those responsible. The Libyan Government, through the Nazirates of Agriculture and Public Works, with the help of "Point Four" in Libya, have attacked the problem systematically.



Early technological surveys indicated that the heavier rainfalls in the Gebel rushed down the mountainside, across the plains only to be wasted in the sea. Someway had to be found to slow down this rushing water and to divert it into farmlands where it was sorely needed.

The solution to this problem was *waterspreading*.

What is waterspreading ?

The theory of waterspreading is simply the holding of water in one place long enough for it to be absorbed into the ground. To do this, a dam is constructed across a known flood path. As the rushing water hits this dam, it backs up and forms a pond. Excess water then runs off along curved dikes to the adjacent area, where it is again held. A series of these dikes are so constructed to keep the water moving in an ever increasing area *away* from the normal Wadi bed. In this manner, the water is slowed down enough to enable the parched soil to absorb most of it. In well-designed systems, less than *one-percent* of the water escapes to the sea.





Why is the absorption of water important ?

The absorption, or penetration of water into the soil, determines the size and quality of crops to be grown on the land. In some countries, where clay makes up the greater part of the soil, only nine inches of water penetration is needed to grow a crop of barley. In sandy soil, as in Libya, 30 to 36 inches of penetration is needed to raise the same crop of barley, and to get this amount of penetration, water must be held from eight to ten hours. Free, unchecked water runs its course in only four to five hours. Thus we see the need for waterspreading.

Is waterspreading a recent development ?

Waterspreading is not something new. The ancient Romans who lived here in Libya, came very near to perfecting waterspreading. Even today, ancient dams, terraces and spillways give evidence of their prowess in this field. During Roman times, it was not uncommon for a "head" of water to be split in three different directions — a truly remarkable feat. Had they possessed a modern transit to enable them to follow the earth's contours with their dikes, waterspreading would have truly been perfected centuries ago.



At one time, nearly every Wadi bottom in the country was stabilized by rock dikes and terraces. These areas received up to ten times the amount of moisture that the climate furnished, due to runoff water. The majority of these old systems have lost their effectiveness due to time, the ravages of weather, and the resultant soil erosion.

The way back to the fullest possible agricultural production lies in the restoration of the terrace and spreader systems initiated by the Romans. The systems thus restored can then bear the brunt of cereal production and could form a basis for production of forage crops. This would take the load off of the better grazing lands and allow them to be used and managed for grazing with a reasonable chance for improvment and stabilization. It would also allow for the planting of perennial grazing species where they would have a chance to survive without competing for the land with cereal production.



This does not mean, however, that work on management of range lands should wait upon the completion of waterspreading projects. Effort is being made and progres is measurable in each area where work has been undertaken. On every waterspreading project, land has been set aside for production of forage crops. The planting of forage crops is done on part of the land each season following the rains.

How is a waterspreader system constructed ?

The construction of spreader systems fall into two categories : earth structures and rock structures. Earth structures have been made by both heavy machinery and hand and camel-drawn scoops,



At the present time, there are two large earth-type systems which were constructed with heavy machinery—one at Wadi GauGau, and the other at Kilometer 623, East of Tripoli on the coastal road.

The system at Wadi GauGau has been tested under heavy run-off conditions. Since its construction, this system has been charged nearly a dozen times with "heads" of water in excess of 200 acre-feet This system drains an area of 76 square-miles in a section where rainfall is estimated at twelve inches annually.

Not all dikes are constructed with heavy equipment. The average Libyan farmer does not have access to this equipment, and therefore any effort in construction must be made by utilizing his own strength or the strength of his camel or donkey.



At the present time there are four hand-and-camel constructed projects at Sirte which cover approximately 30 acres. Two of these projects have been subjected to heavy flows of water during the past season, and have shown appreciable results. In the Nalut-Uazzen area, two small systems have been handbuilt. Sweet clover made a good growth under the once-flooded system. Experience has shown that these small systems can be built at a cost of approximately $4.00 per acre of ground covered by the waterspread.

In areas where rock is abundant, such as the Beni Ulid section, hand made dikes of rock are very effective. A good rule to remember when building a dike of this kind is the larger the rocks used the better. For every meter of height, the dike should be three meters wide if the wall is to be stable.

Although cement or mud is not used in rock-constructed dikes, the silt deposited after one or two runoffs of water will nearly always plug up the small gaps between the rocks.





To date, the major effort in rock spreader dikes has been in the Wadi Beni Ulid and Wadi Targallat areas. In January 1955, the Tripolitanian Nazirate of Agriculture asked "Point Four" to assist in the work in the Beni Ulid and Tarhuna sections. The workers were paid for their labor in American gift wheat.

Layout work and over-all supervision of the project was handled by Mr. Don Davis, Range Management Specialist, with the help of two capable Libyan assistants.



Soon after completion, both systems were subjected to severe tests. On April 25, 1955, heavy run-off of rainfall from the Garian area measured between 22,000 to 24,000 cubic-feet-per-second at its peak. This run-off was computed across a cement causeway the width of the Wadi. The cross-sectional area was measured and the velocity of the water was computed at 5 1/2 feet per second. This peak run-off lasted for a period of 4 1/2 hours before it diminished to 2,000 cubic-feet-per-second. Again on April 26, 27, 28 and 29, the Wadi discharged similar heads of water for a total of seven peak heads of up to four hour duration. Specialists were present during this time and therefore able to make fairly accurate computations.





At the end of this storm, it was found that approximately 60 per-cent of the dikes suffered no damage at all, 30 per-cent lost a rock here and there, and 10 per-cent suffered major breaks. A close investigation of the major breaks revealed that *every* break could be traced to faulty workmanship or lack of end coreing across the channels.





After the storm, infiltration measurements were also made. Behind the dikes water was found to penetrate the soil in excess of 36 inches. Without the dikes, no penetration was found greater than 18 inches.

Waterspreading had again proved itself.



As soon as the Wadi dried up enough to work, farmers planted large areas of millet (gassep). Its growth was greatly expedited by manure deposits washed down the mountainside with the silt. This fertilizer, and the depth of penetration made possible by the waterspreading system, was responsible for turning out one of the finest cereal crops in the area's history.



During the hot summer months that followed the Spring rains, the only areas maturing well when finally harvested were those *behind* the dikes. Areas unplanted behind the spreaders, however, grew up in a dense mat of Bermuda grass. This grass furnished excellent grazing stock for the animals, and remained green nearly the entire summer.

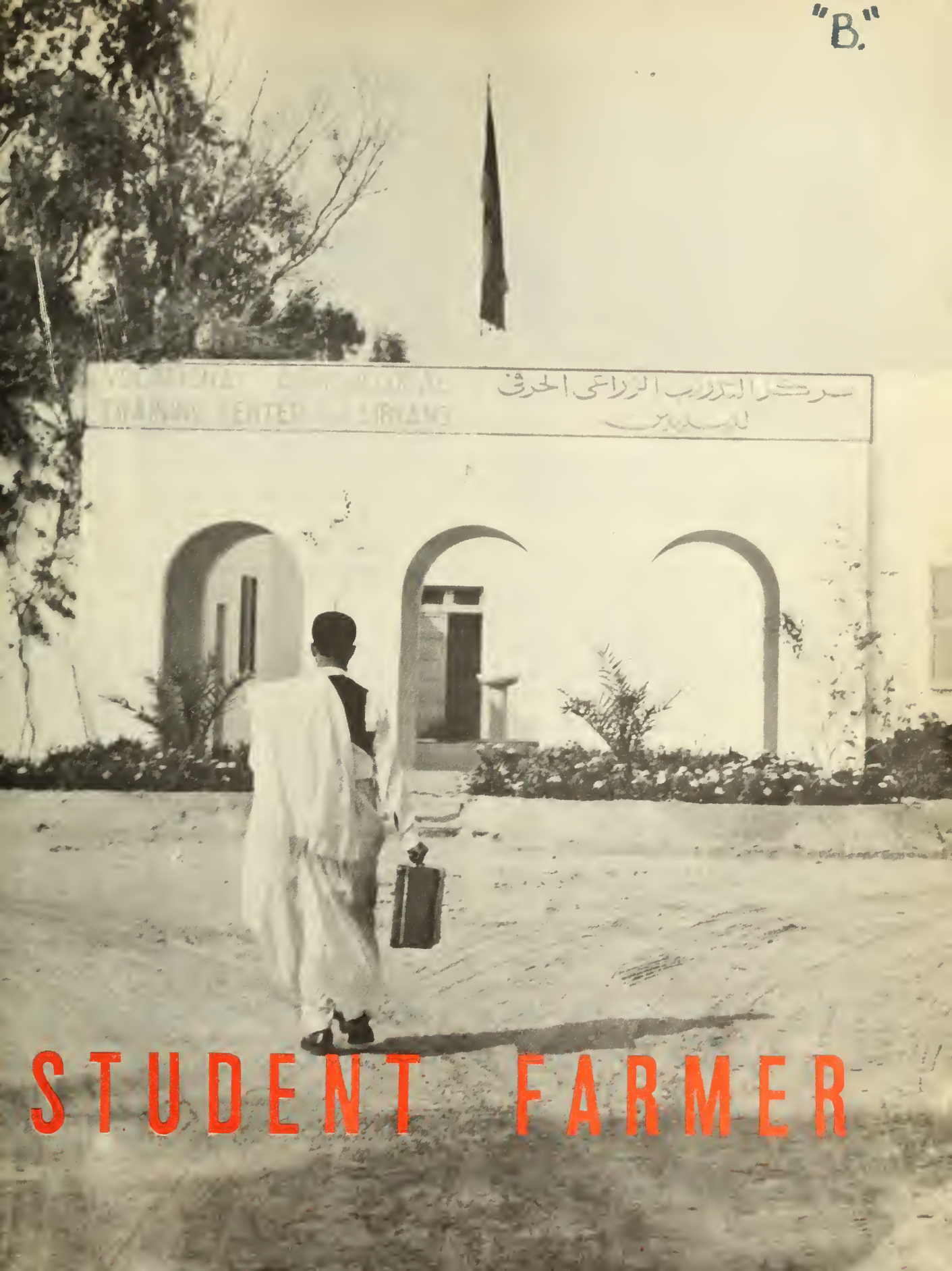
What remains to be done?

Now that the people have seen the benefits of waterspreading, the Libyan Government is going all out to increase the agricultural output by this method. Work completed to date has merely scratched the surface. Aerial reconnaissance and map study of the Wadis draining from the back slopes to the high rainfall area, indicates that there are over 50,000 acres of Wadi bottom suitable for similar treatment in Tripolitania, and another 37,000 acres in Cyrenaica. These areas are relatively certain of at least one flooding per year, which would insure a cereal or forage crop ifwater could be held long enough to permit 24 to 30 inches (61 to 80 centimeters) of penetration. There are aproximately 80,000 additional acres on which run off water could be expected three years out of five, and a still greater area where flooding would occur three years in ten.

Waterspreading then is another means whereby nature can be made to do her most in helping to create a better and more prosperous Libya.



"B."



STUDENT FARMER



Since the most important factor in the Libyan national economy is agriculture, the need for specialized training in this field became apparent early in this young nation's history.

The Libyan Government, through the excellent cooperation of the Nazirates of Agriculture and Education of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, selected sites in the two provinces for the establishment of Vocational Agricultural Training Centers — schools of secondary curriculum with emphasis on farming. El Awelia, a former Italian Colonization Center near Barce in Cyrenaica, and a former Italian Children's Reformatory at Sidi Mesri in Tripolitania were set aside by the government to house these new institutions.

In February of 1952, Mr. Ray Russell, a University of Missouri graduate and a specialist in Agricultural Education, arrived in Libya under the auspices of American Point Four to assume charge of the school at Sidi Mesri.

The sight which greeted Mr. Russell when he first saw his school was far from pleasant. Horses had been stabled in what was to be his living quarters, solitary confinement cells remained in one of his future classrooms, and the debris of three different armies — Italian, German and British — had collected in the one usable building.

However, the Libyan Government, realizing the need for such a school, spared nothing in renovating the building. Some nine months and 12,000 Libyan Pounds later the school was ready to receive its first students.

Among the original 30 students who came to Sidi Mesri from all sections of Tripolitania on that day in November 1952, was 17-year-old Mohammed Abdulsalam Qaja, of Beni Ulid.

Here is his story:



Upon his arrival at the school, Mohammed is greeted by the Director, Mr. Russell. Only four other students of the original thirty were present before Mohammed arrived.



Soon after arrival all boys are issued bed linens, towels and soap, and heavy work clothes and shoes. Mohammed receives his new issue from Mr. Mohammed Bederi, the Libyan Supervisor of Students.

Mohammed Abdulsalam Qaja, 17, journeyed from his uncle's home in Beni Ulid by bus. He was tired after the long journey and anxious to get enrolled in the new school.

Mohammed was one of twelve applicants from the Beni Ulid area. All twelve wished to be enrolled in the new Vocational Agricultural Training Center, but unfortunately, because of limited space, and in fairness to boys applying from other parts of Tripolitania, only one of the twelve could be accepted from that area.

Basic tests were given the applicants, all of whom had received their primary school certificates. Personal interviews by Mr. Russell, the school's director, were also held. On the basis of general aptitude and their farm background, the twelve were first narrowed to four, then to two, and finally Mohammed Qaja was nominated. He was given a bus ticket and told on what day he would be expected to arrive at the new school.

It was a great day for Mohammed. Afterwards he admitted that he was reluctant to walk the ten kilometers to the testing site at Beni Ulid, because he thought he had little chance in the open competition. It was a happy young man who walked out of the building with the nomination and bus ticket in his hand.



Dormitory regulations require the students to keep their sleeping areas neat at all times. Mr. Ali Shakshuki, the School Secretary, shows Mohammed and fellow student Mustapha Muafa, 22, of Misurata, the correct way to dress a bed.

A big kus-kus dinner was served as the first meal at the new school. The rest of the day was kept free so that the students, no two of whom came from the same town in Tripolitania, might get aquainted. The next day classes began.

Upon arrival at Sidi Mesri, Mohammed was greeted by Mr. Russell. With the other boys he was taken to the clothing room where new work clothes and heavy working shoes were issued. He was then assigned to a bed and cupboard to hold his personal belongings in the school dormitory. New blankets, bed linens and a pillow were given to each student, and a generous supply of soap and towels were turned over to them. Personal hygiene begins early in the training at VATC.

After a hot shower and in new clothes, the students were grouped together and given an orientation on how the school would operate, taught the rules and regulations they would be expected to know and obey, and were introduced to their teachers.



After the long trip from his home in Beni Ulid, Mohammed enjoys a hot shower. He knows, too, that after long hours in the fields and classrooms, a hot shower is something to look forward to with pleasure.

An important step in the enrollment procedure at VATC is the medical examination. The original students who came to Sidi Mesri in 1952 were examined by the doctor upon their arrival at the school. Today, because of the great increase in medical facilities throughout Libya, the boys are examined in their own villages before being allowed to come to the school.

The medical examination is very important. Without it, one boy could unknowingly infect several of his fellow students if he were suffering, say, from trachoma. The examination is a strict one, for only healthy students can cope with the rigorous training in the classrooms and fields of VATC.

Medical treatment is available to every student. The instructors are trained in simple first aid, and should a boy become seriously ill or injured while attending school, the finest medical attention available in Tripoli, the Libyan Government Hospital, is offered to him free of charge.

In addition, a Joint Service Health Nurse conducts two sessions weekly at the school in personal hygiene and sanitation. This course is mandatory for all students. The dispensing of medicines for simple maladies and the attending of minor cuts and bruises are done by the nurse during her visits to the school.



A hot kus-kus dinner brings together for the first time four students from different parts of Tripolitania. Enjoying their first meal at the school are Mohammed, Naji Khalifa, 21, of Zuara, Nuri Husein, 20, of Garian, and Mohammed Sheibani, 21, of Jefren.



A complete medical examination is given to each new student before he is permitted to begin his training. Mohammed has his heart checked by Dr. Alexander Dimitriades, soon after his arrival at the school.

The work day at Sidi Mesri is so divided that each boy spends four hours per day in the fields and three in the classrooms.

During his four years at VATC, each student can expect classes in the following subjects:

Mathmatics

- Rural Arithmetic
- General Math
- Geometry
- Algebra

Science

- General Science
- Chemistry
- Biology
- Physics

Social Science

- Physical Education
- Geography
- Religion
- History

Language

- Arabic
- English
- Italian

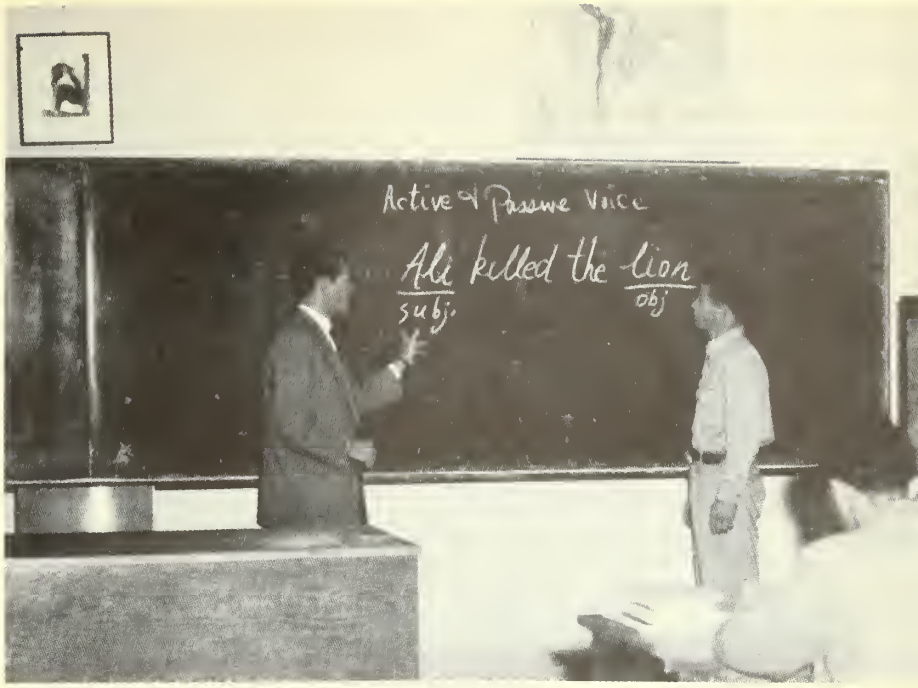
Agriculture

- General Agriculture
- Livestock
- Poultry
- Rabbits
- Dairy
- Bee Keeping
- Vegetable Gardening
- Horticulture
- Soils & Fertilizers
- Irrigation
- Farm Management
- Farm Bookkeeping
- Farm Shop
- Blacksmithing
- Wood Working
- Metal Working
- Masonry & Concrete
- Leather & Rope working
- Farm Machinery, Operating, Repair and Maintenance
- Mechanical Drawing
- Farm Surveying

Because of the acute shortage of textbooks in Arabic on modern farming subjects, it became necessary to include English in the school's curriculm. All of the boys upon their arrival at the school could not speak a single word of English. Now, after a few short years, all of them can speak English and many could be called bi-lingual.

As far as the students are concerned, the most important factor to induce them to learn English is that a select few who have succeeded in mastering the rudiments of the English language, will be considered for scholarships in specialized training at Agricultural colleges in the United States.

Some of the most popular classroom subjects at VATC are the science courses. During the four years stay at the school, each student receives courses in general science, biology, physics and chemistry. Mohammed Qaja, who has set his sights on becoming a soils expert, particularly enjoys the science courses and is rated near the top of his class in them.



English is a required subject at VATC. Mohammed, who is one of the top students in the class, has the intricacies of grammar explained to him by Professor Abdin Tewfic Beseiso.



Some of the favorite classes of the students at VATC are the science courses. Here in the biology class Mohammed views a slide through the microscope as Professor Hasan Kitmitto explains a point to Milad Schmeila, 18, of Zliten.

All phases



Since Libya has been endowed with many fruit trees, an important course, fruit tree pruning, was added to the school's curriculum. Mohammed learns this new skill under the guidance of Mr. Mohammed Djani, the school's Field Supervisor, as fellow student, Omar Azzabi, of Giado looks on.



One of the most practical courses at VATC is blacksmithing. The students have learned to make all the tools necessary in farming including the plow. Four hours a week are set aside to learn this trade. Mohammed learned this skill from Mr. Mohammed Lajeili, the metalsmith instructor.

are stressed

of farm training



To cope with Libya's arid land, the students are taught the theory and practice of irrigation. Mr. Russell, the school's director, shows Mohammed and fellow student, Ali Jareed, of Suk el Guimma, how to transfer water from the main canal into the individual garden plots.



Another phase of the horticulture course is tree spraying. Many insects, including the dreaded locust which preys on the young trees, makes insecticide spraying an important course at the school. Mohammed is taught spraying techniques by Mr. Mohammed Djani, the Field Supervisor, as fellow student, Omar Azzabi, of Giado, operates the pump.

at Sidi Mesri !



Frequent consultations with members of the faculty enables the students to get an accurate account of their progress. A report on his week's progress is given to Mohammed by Professor Yusef Hazima, the school's Assistant Director.

A healthy teacher-student relationship is necessary at any institution of learning. At VATC this is accomplished by means of student counseling. Once a week each student is called before a member of the faculty to discuss his progress or personal problems. This frank discussion between student and instructor makes the student realize that the instructors are interested in him as an individual, and as a result the boy is encouraged to improve or to maintain a high scholastic rating. It has been proven at VATC that a little reassurance goes a long way in building up a student's self-confidence.

Spiritual training has not been neglected. A section of the students' dining hall has been set aside as a mosque in which the boys may pray.

Classes in the Koran are also conducted, with each boy getting the opportunity to read from it. In good weather, these classes are usually held out of doors, and are an important part of the student's life at VATC.

A boy's spiritual training is important at VATC. In good weather the boys group together out of doors to hear and read from the Koran. Reading from the Koran is usually begun by the Supervisor of Students, Mr. Mohammed Bederi. Each student then takes part in the reading.

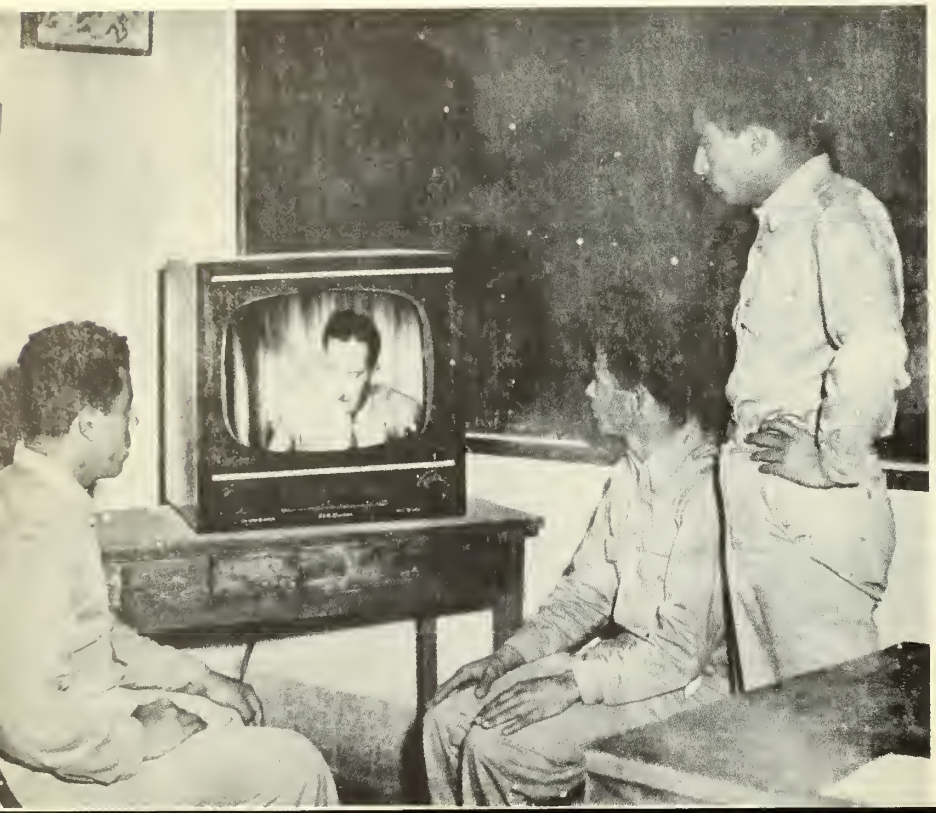


Recreation plays a definite role in the everyday lives of the students. An alert mind on the playing field stimulates an alert mind in the classroom. The boys at VATC are ardent football fans — they are even building their own football field. Other sports played include volleyball, basketball, table tennis, and even the favorite American sport of baseball has been introduced by Mr. Russell.

A radio and phonograph have been provided for the boys after-study entertainment. Recently, the American Cultural Center in Tripoli presented the school with a large television receiver. The American programs are well received by the students, all of whom are now speaking English. A special Arabic-language program keeps the students abreast of current events by means of a World News telecast every Friday.



Athletics play an important role at VATC. During a volleyball game Mohammed leaps high in the air for the ball as fellow students, Ramadan Hammali, 21, of Tarhuna, and Mohammed Girassi, 19, of Zavia, prepare to return it.



Popular after-study entertainment at the school is television. Mohammed and fellow students, Mansur Sughayyer, 22, of Azizia, and Mohammed Feitoori 21, of Zavia, watch Mr. Daud Kleibo, Tripoli's TV news commentator, over the weekly Arabic-language program.

Every student, especially on studying away from home, finds himself in need of spending money. At VATC no stipends are paid to the students. Instead, each student is given a plot of land and loaned seed, fertilizer and the necessary tools to work the soil. As crops mature, each student harvests his own, washes it and turns it over to the field supervisor who tabulates the size of the crop and credits it to the student's account. When the produce is sold in Tripoli or at the big American Air Base at Wheelus Field, the proceeds are returned to the school.





After deductions are made to cover the cost of the seed and fertilizer, the balance of the profits are then turned over to the individual student. In this manner, the boys learn self-reliance and the value of money. For all the boys realize that if they want to have spending money, they must first earn it. Neither the Libyan Government nor Point Four pays these boys to attend school.



When preparing to go into Tripoli, on his day off, an important stop for Mohammed is the School Office where he will collect his crop money. There is a sense of pride for all the boys in knowing that the money they receive from Mr. Ali Shakouki, the School Secretary, is not a gift — they have earned this money, and can spend or save it as they choose.

The students always look forward to a day in Tripoli. Some have relatives there, while others attend the cinema or athletic events that the city has to offer. Mohammed and fellow student, Mohammed Quallali, 22, of Nalut, wave goodbye to Professor Yusef Hazima, after checking out for Tripoli.



Following a busy school week, the students look forward to Thursday. Thursday afternoon and Friday are holidays at VATC. If the boys have crop money coming to them, they line up at the office of the school secretary to receive it after the noon meal on Thursday. Then, off to Tripoli.

If a student has relatives living in or near Tripoli, special permission may be granted allowing the student to stay with them on Thursday night. Otherwise they must return to the school on Thursday night, but may return to Tripoli on Friday if they so desire.

For those who remain at school over the holidays there are sports, extra studying if required, or anything they wish to do to keep them busy. There is no work on these days.

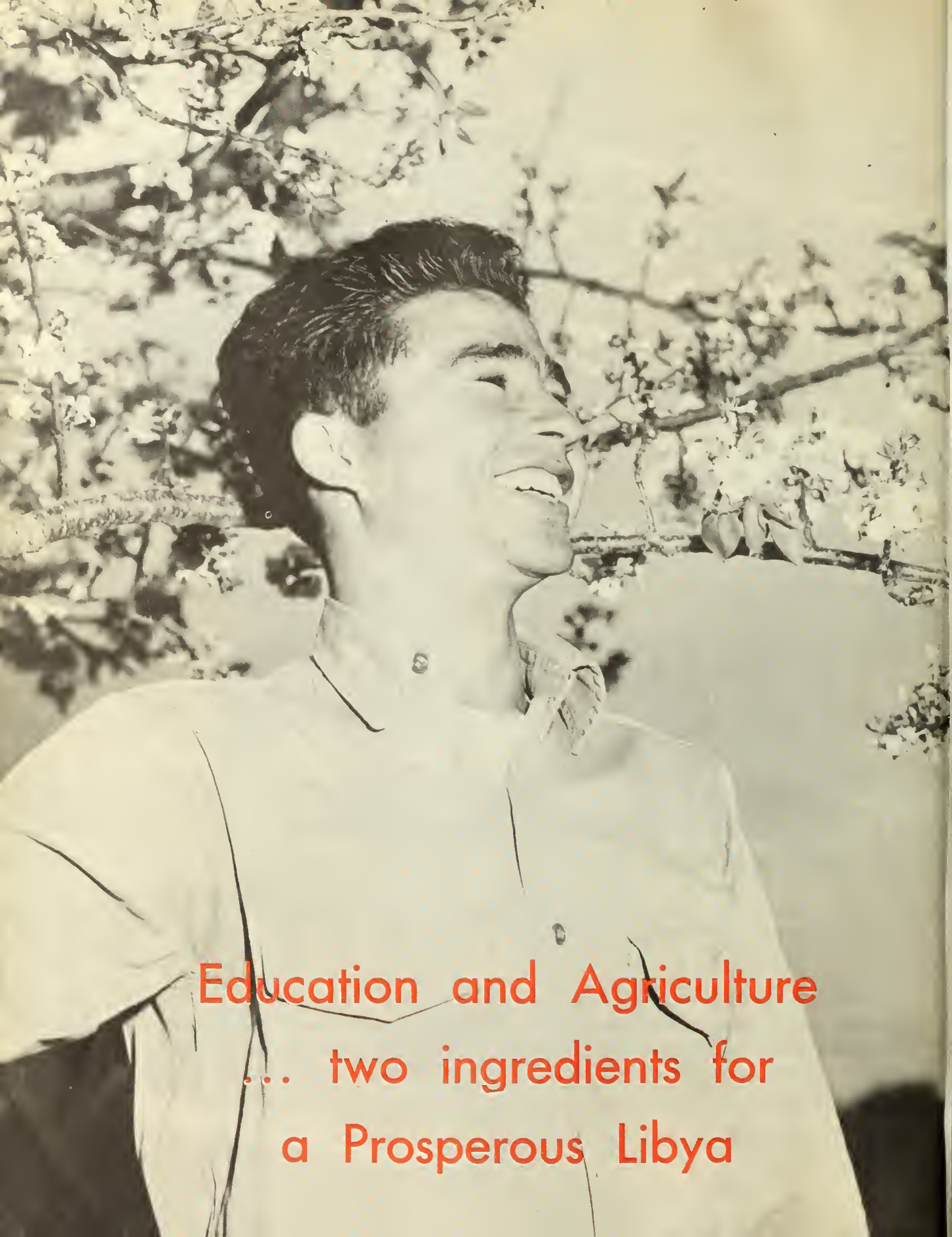
A recent addition to the school's curriculum is a course on the operation, care and maintenance of farm machinery. The course, held in conjunction with the Natural Resources Division of Point Four, gives the VATC students an opportunity to learn about farm mechanization which will eventually be practiced in Libya.

The course, under the instruction of Point Four technicians, is held for the benefit of Joint Service employees who will operate the equipment as well as the VATC students.



Like the other students, Mohammed has been taught to drive a tractor and to operate certain types of farm equipment. Maintenance gets special attention in this course, for the boys realize that if machinery is to operate successfully careful maintenance is necessary.

As his four years at VATC draws to a close, plans for Mohammed's future are being considered by the Nazir of Education and the Chief Educationist of Point Four. Because of his excellent scholastic and field work record, there is a strong possibility that he may be offered a scholarship to an institution of higher learning abroad — a just reward for such an industrious boy.



Education and Agriculture
... two ingredients for
a Prosperous Libya

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